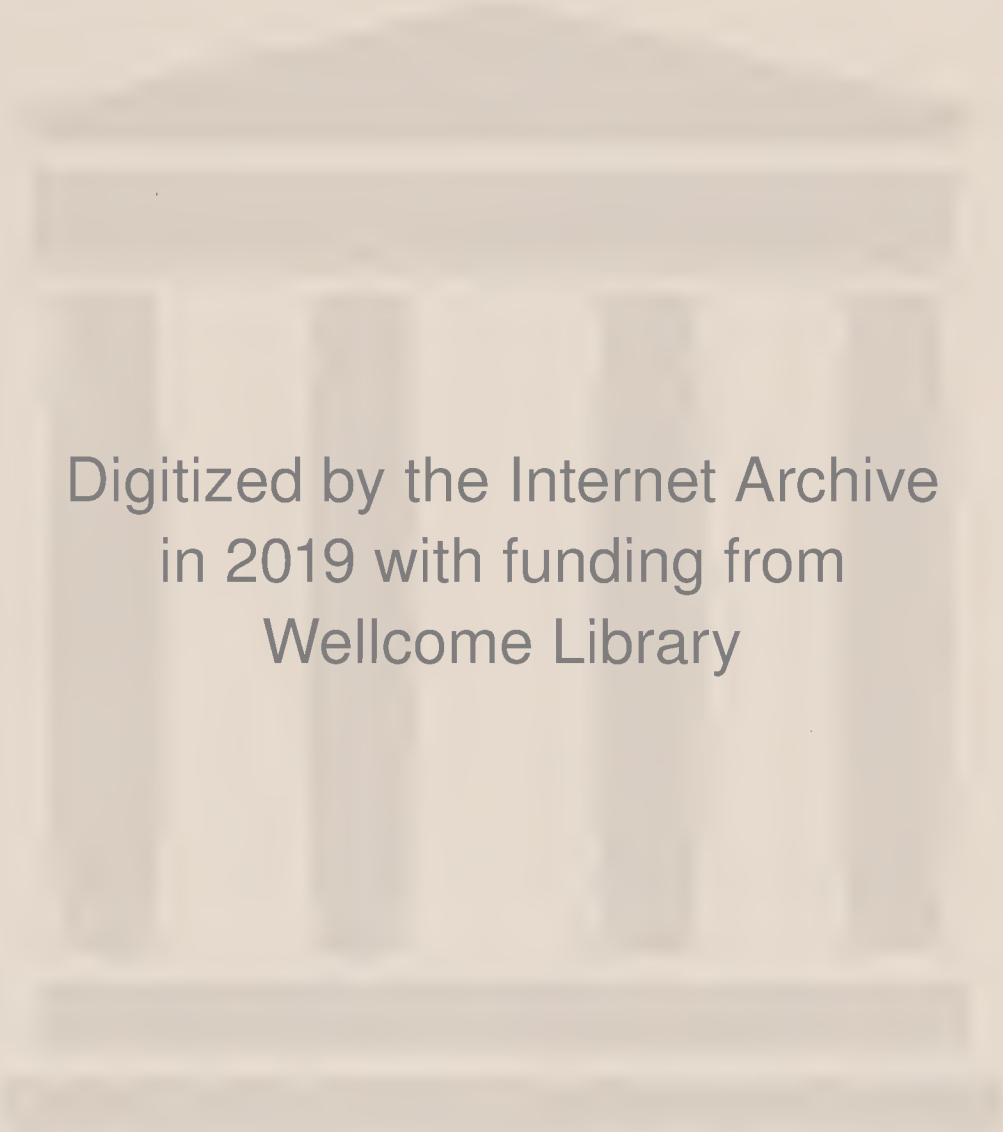


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PUBLIC PAPERS.

By the King. A PROCLAMATION
For a General Fast.

GEORGE R.

WE, taking into Our most serious consideration the just and necessary war in which We are engaged, and putting Our trust in Almighty God that He will graciously bless Our arms, both by sea and land, have resolved, and do, by and with the advice of Our privy council, hereby command, that a public day of fasting and humiliation be observed throughout those parts of Our united kingdom called England and Ireland, on Wednesday the 26th day of February next ensuing, that so both We and Our people may humble Ourselves before Almighty God, in order to obtain pardon of Our sins, and in the most devout and solemn manner send up Our prayers and supplications to the Divine Majesty, for averting those heavy judgments which Our manifold provocations have most justly deserved; and for imploring His blessing and assistance on Our arms, for the restoration of peace, and prosperity to Us and Our dominions: and We do strictly charge and command, that the said public fast be reverently and devoutly ob-

served by all Our loving subjects in England and Ireland, as they tender the favour of Almighty God, and would avoid His wrath and indignation; and upon pain of such punishment as We may justly inflict on all such as contemn and neglect the performance of so religious and necessary a duty: and for the better and more orderly solemnising the same, We have given directions to the most reverend the archbishops, and the right reverend the bishops of England and Ireland, to compose a form of prayer suitable to this occasion, to be used in all churches, chapels, and places of public worship, and to take care that the same be timely dispersed throughout their respective dioceses.

Given at Our court at the
Queen's palace, this twentieth
day of January, one thousand
eight hundred and six, in the
forty-sixth year of Our reign.

GOD SAVE THE KING.

By the King. A PROCLAMATION
For dissolving this present parliament, and declaring the calling of another.

GEORGE R.

Whereas We think fit, by and
(K 3) with

with the advice of Our privy council, to dissolve this present parliament, which stands prorogued to Wednesday the 29th day of this instant October, and which was to be further prorogued on the said 29th day of this instant October to Thursday the 27th day of November next: We do, therefore, publish this Our royal proclamation; and do hereby dissolve the said parliament accordingly; and the lords spiritual and temporal, and the knights, citizens, and burgesses, and the commissioners for shires and burghs, of the house of commons, are discharged from their meeting and attendance on the said Wednesday the 29th day of this instant October, and on the said Thursday the 27th day of November next. And We being desirous and resolved, as soon as may be, to meet Our people, and to have their advice in parliament, do hereby make known to all Our loving subjects Our royal will and pleasure to call a new parliament: and do hereby further declare, that, with the advice of Our privy council, We have this day given order that Our chancellor of that part of Our united kingdom called Great Britain and Our chancellor of Ireland, do respectively forthwith issue Our writs, in due form and according to law, for calling a new parliament. And We do hereby also, by this Our royal proclamation under Our great seal of Our united kingdom, require writs forthwith to be issued accordingly by Our said chancellors respectively, for causing the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, who are to serve in Our said parliament, to be duly returned to, and give their attendance in, Our said parliament; which

writs are to be returnable on Monday, the 15th day of December next.

Given at Our court at the Queen's palace, the 24th day of October, 1806, and in the 46th year of Our reign.

GOD SAVE THE KING.

HIS MAJESTY'S MESSAGE.

January 21.

The parliament was this day, in the absence of his majesty, opened by commission. The archbishop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, the earl of Dartmouth, earl Camden, and lord Auckland, sat as commissioners. The commons, with the speaker at their head, soon appeared at the bar. The royal commission was then read; after which, the lord chancellor delivered the following speech:

“ My lords, and gentlemen,

“ In pursuance of the authority given to us by his majesty's commission under the great seal, among other things, to declare the cause of his holding this parliament, his majesty has directed us particularly to call your attention to the most decisive success with which Providence has vouchsafed to bless his majesty's arms at sea, since you were last assembled in parliament.

“ The activity and perseverance of his majesty's fleets have been conspicuously displayed in the pursuit and attack of the different squadrons of the enemy, and every encounter has terminated to the honour of the British flag, and the diminution of the naval force of the powers with whom his majesty is at war: but the victory obtained over the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar has manifested, beyond any exploit recorded even in the annals of the British navy, the skill and enterprise

enterprise of his majesty's officers and seamen; and the destruction of so large a proportion of the naval strength of the enemy, has not only confirmed, in the most signal manner, the maritime superiority of this country, but has essentially contributed to the security of his majesty's dominions.

"His majesty most deeply regrets that the day of that memorable triumph should have been unhappily clouded by the fall of the heroic commander under whom it was achieved: and he is persuaded that you will feel that this lamented but glorious termination of a series of transcendent exploits claims a distinguished expression of the lasting gratitude of the country; and that you will therefore cheerfully concur in enabling his majesty to annex to those honours which he has conferred on the family of the late lord viscount Nelson, such a mark of national munificence, as may preserve to the latest posterity the memory of his name and services, and the benefit of his great example.

"His majesty has commanded us further to inform you, that, whilst the superiority of his arms at sea has been thus uniformly asserted and maintained, he has not been wanting in his endeavours to apply the means, which were so liberally placed at his disposal, in aid of such of the powers of the continent as evinced a determination to resist the formidable and growing encroachments of France. He has directed the several treaties entered into for this purpose to be laid before you; and though he cannot but deeply lament that the events of the war in Germany have disappointed his hopes, and led to an unfavourable issue, yet his majesty feels confident, that, upon a

review of the steps which he has taken, you will be of opinion, that he has left nothing undone on his part to sustain the efforts of his allies; and that he has acted in strict conformity to the principles declared by him, and recognised by parliament as essential to the interest and security of his own dominions, as well as to the general safety of the continent.

"It is a great consolation to his majesty, and one in which he is persuaded you will participate, that although the emperor of Germany has felt himself compelled to withdraw from the contest, his majesty continues to receive from his august ally the emperor of Russia, the strongest assurances of unshaken adherence to that generous and enlightened policy by which he has hitherto been actuated; and his majesty has no doubt that you will be fully sensible of the important advantages to be derived from preserving at all times the closest and most intimate connection with that sovereign.

"Gentlemen of the house of commons,

"His majesty has directed the estimates for the year to be laid before you, and he has commanded us to assure you that they are framed upon that scale of exertion which the present situation of the country renders indispensable. His majesty fully relies upon your granting him such supplies as, upon due deliberation, the public exigencies may appear to require. It is his earnest wish to contribute, by every means in his power, to alleviate the additional burthens which must necessarily be imposed upon his people; and with this view he has directed the sum of one million sterling, part of the

proceeds arising from the sale of such prizes made on the powers with which he is at war, as are by law vested in the crown, to be applied to the public service of the year.

“ My lords, and gentlemen,

“ His majesty is most fully persuaded, that whatever pride and confidence you may feel in common with him, in the success which has distinguished the British arms, in the course of the present contest, you will be sensible how much the events of the war on the continent, by which the predominant power and influence of France have been so unhappily extended, require the continuance of all possible vigilance and exertion. Under this impression, his majesty trusts that your attention will be invariably directed to the improvement of those means which are to be found in the bravery and discipline of his forces, in the zeal and loyalty of every class of his subjects, and in the unexhausted resources of his dominions, for rendering the British empire invincible at home, as well as formidable abroad; satisfied that by such efforts alone, the contest can be brought to a conclusion consistent with the safety and independence of the country, and with its rank amongst the nations of the world.”

HIS MAJESTY'S MESSAGE.

Dec. 18.

After some peers had taken the oaths, the commons were ordered to attend, when the following speech was delivered by the lord chancellor in his majesty's name :

“ My lords, and gentlemen,

“ His majesty has commanded us to assure you, that, in the dif-

ficult and arduous circumstances under which you are now assembled, it is a great satisfaction to him to recur to the firmness and wisdom of his parliament, after so recent an opportunity of collecting the sense of his people.

“ His majesty has ordered the papers which have been exchanged in the course of the late negotiation with France to be laid before you. His majesty has employed every effort for the restoration of general tranquillity on terms consistent with the interests and honour of his people, and with that inviolable good faith towards his allies, by which the conduct of this country has always been distinguished.

“ The ambition and injustice of the enemy disappointed these endeavours, and in the same moment kindled a fresh war in Europe, the progress of which has been attended with the most calamitous events. After witnessing the subversion of the antient constitution of Germany, and the subjugation of a large proportion of its most considerable states, Prussia found herself still more nearly threatened by that danger which she had vainly hoped to avert by so many sacrifices. She was, therefore, at length compelled to adopt the resolution of openly resisting this unremitted system of aggrandizement and conquest. But neither this determination, nor the succeeding measures, were previously concerted with his majesty; nor had any disposition been shown to offer any adequate satisfaction for those aggressions which had placed the two countries in a state of mutual hostility.

“ Yet, in this situation, his majesty did not hesitate to adopt, without delay, such measures as were best calculated to unite their councils

councils, and interests against the common enemy. The rapid course of the calamities which ensued, opposed insurmountable difficulties to the execution of this purpose. In the midst of these disastrous events, and under the most trying circumstances, the good faith of his majesty's allies has remained unshaken. The conduct of the king of Sweden has been distinguished by the most honourable firmness. Between his majesty and the emperor of Russia the happiest union subsists—it has been cemented by reciprocal proofs of good faith and confidence; and his majesty doubts not that you will participate in his anxiety to cultivate and confirm an alliance which affords the best remaining hope of safety for the continent of Europe.

“Gentlemen of the house of commons,

“His majesty looks with confidence to your assistance in those exertions which the honour and independence of your country demand. The necessity of adding to the public burthens will be painful to your feelings, and is deeply distressing to his majesty. In considering the estimates for the various branches of the public service, you will best consult his majesty's wishes by combining all practicable œconomy with those efforts which it is necessary to make against the formidable and increasing power of the enemy.

“My lords, and gentlemen,

“The long series of misfortune which has afflicted the continent of Europe could not fail to affect in some degree many important interests of this country. But, under every successive difficulty, his majesty has had the satisfaction of witnessing an increasing energy

and firmness on the part of his people, whose uniform and determined resistance has been no less advantageous than honourable to themselves, and has exhibited the most striking example to the surrounding nations.

“The unconquerable valour and discipline of his majesty's fleets and armies continue to be displayed with undiminished lustre; the great sources of our prosperity and strength are unimpaired; nor has the British nation been at any time more united in sentiment and action, or more determined to maintain inviolate the independence of the empire, and the dignity of the national character.

“With these advantages, and with an humble reliance on the protection of the Divine Providence, his majesty is prepared to meet the exigencies of this great crisis, assured of receiving the fullest support from the wisdom of your deliberations, and from the tried affection, loyalty, and public spirit of his brave people.”

At the court at the Queen's palace, the 5th of Feb. 1806, present the king's most excellent majesty in council.

His majesty having been pleased to deliver the custody of the privy seal to Henry viscount Sidmouth, the oath of keeper of the privy seal was this day administered to him, and his lordship took his place at the board accordingly.

This day the right hon. Francis earl of Moira; the right hon. Richard Chandos earl Temple; the right hon. Henry Petty, (commonly called lord Henry Petty,) chancellor and under treasurer of his majesty's exchequer; the right hon. Charles Grey; and the right hon. Charles James Fox, were, by his majesty's

majesty's command, sworn of his majesty's most honourable privy council, and took their respective places at the board accordingly.

His majesty having been pleased to appoint the right hon. George John earl Spencer, K. G. and the right hon. William Windham to be two of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, they were this day, by his majesty's command, sworn two of his majesty's principal secretaries of state accordingly.

His majesty, in council, was this day pleased to appoint the right hon. William lord Auckland, and, in his lordship's absence, the right hon. Richard Chandos earl Temple, president of the committee of council appointed for the consideration of all matters relating to trade and foreign plantations.

At the court at the Queen's palace, the 7th of February, 1806, present, the king's most excellent majesty in council.

This day the right hon. George viscount Morpeth; the right hon. John Townshend, (commonly called lord John Townshend); the right hon. Thomas lord Erskine; and the right hon. Richard Brinsley Sheridan, were, by his majesty's command, sworn of his majesty's most honourable privy council, and took their respective places at the board accordingly.

His majesty, in council, was this day graciously pleased to deliver the great seal to the right hon. Thomas lord Erskine; whereupon the oath of lord high chancellor of Great Britain was, by his majesty's command, administered to his lordship, and his lordship took his place at the board accordingly.

His majesty having been pleased to appoint the right hon. Charles

James Fox to be one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, he was this day, by his majesty's command, sworn one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state accordingly.

April 5. At the court at the Queen's palace, present, the king's most excellent majesty in council.

Whereas his majesty has received advice that his majesty the king of Prussia has taken possession of various parts of the electorate of Hanover, and other dominions belonging to his majesty, in a forcible and hostile manner; and has also notified that all British ships shall be excluded from the ports of the Prussian dominion, and from certain other ports in the north of Europe, and not suffered to enter or trade therewith, in violation of the just rights and interests of his majesty and his dominions, and contrary to the established law and practice of nations in amity with each other: his majesty, with the advice of his privy council, is thereupon pleased to order, as it is hereby ordered, that no ships or vessels belonging to any of his majesty's subjects be permitted to enter and clear out for any of the ports of Prussia until further order: and his majesty is further pleased to order, that a general embargo or stop be made of all Prussian ships and vessels whatsoever, now within, or which hereafter shall come into any of the ports, harbours, or roads within the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with all persons and effects on board the said ships and vessels; but that the utmost care be taken for the preservation of all and every part of

of the cargoes on board any of the said ships and vessels, so that no damage or embezzlement whatever be sustained:—and the right hon. the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury, the lords commissioners of the admiralty, and the lord warden of the Cinque ports, are to give the necessary directions herein, as to them may respectively appertain.

STEPHEN COTTRELL.

At the court at the Queen's palace, the 16th of April 1806, present the king's most excellent majesty in council.

Whereas his majesty has received advice, that his majesty the king of Prussia has taken possession of his majesty's electoral dominions in a forcible and hostile manner; and has caused it to be notified to his majesty's minister at the court of Berlin, that all British ships were thenceforth to be excluded from the ports of the Prussian dominions, and from certain other ports in the north of Europe, under the forcible control of Prussia, in violation of the just rights and interests of his majesty and his dominions, and contrary to the law and practice of nations in amity with each other: and whereas his majesty, by and with the advice of his privy council, has been pleased to cause an embargo to be laid upon vessels belonging to the subjects of Prussia now within, or which hereafter shall come into any of the ports of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with all persons and effects on board the said vessels: and whereas there is just reason to apprehend that the neutrality of the rivers, Elbe, Weser, and Ems, and the

free navigation thereof, will not, under these circumstances, be duly respected by his majesty's enemies, but will be rendered subject to the hostile measures above described; his majesty, by and with the advice of his privy council, is pleased to order, and it is hereby ordered, that a general embargo or stop be made in like manner, until further order from this board, of all ships and vessels belonging to persons residing in any ports or places situate upon the said rivers Elbe, Weser, and Ems, save and except vessels under the Danish flag, and also save and except that in respect to the goods and effects on board such ships and vessels which shall have been laden in, or are coming consigned to, any ports of the united kingdom, the same shall be forthwith liberated and delivered up to the said laders and consignees respectively; and it is hereby further ordered, that no property or freight money appearing to belong to any subject of Prussia, or to any persons residing as aforesaid, respecting which proceedings are now depending, or shall hereafter depend, in any of his majesty's courts of prize, shall be decreed to be restored, nor shall the proceeds of any property or freight money belonging as aforesaid, which hath already been decreed to be restored, be paid to or on behalf of the claimants, but the same shall be kept in safe custody until his majesty's further orders herein: and it is further ordered, that no person residing within his majesty's dominions do presume to pay any freight money due or payable to or on behalf of any person or persons, being subjects, or residing within the dominions of the king of Prussia, or in the ports or places aforesaid, for the freight of mer-

merchandize laden on board any ship which is detained under the said embargo, or which shall hereafter be brought into any of the ports of his majesty's dominions, but that such freight money shall be forthwith paid into the registry of the high court of admiralty, there to remain until his majesty's pleasure shall be further known, or until other provision shall be made by law: and whereas it has been represented to his majesty that the goods on board several of the Prussian vessels so detained, or to be detained by the embargo, are the property of his majesty's subjects, or the property of persons not being subjects of Prussia: it is further ordered, that all goods on board any vessels detained under the said embargo, which were laden in, or coming consigned to, ports of the united kingdom, shall be delivered to the disposal of the owners or their agents, upon affidavit being made and produced in the high court of admiralty, that the said goods were not, at the time of shipment, nor are now, the property of subjects of Prussia, and upon paying the freight due upon such goods, into the registry of the said court, and upon giving sufficient bail to abide adjudication in case any proceedings should be commenced against the said goods, within two months from the date of such delivery: and the right honourable the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury, the lords commissioners of the admiralty, and lord warden of the Cinque ports, and the judge of the high court of admiralty, are to give the necessary directions herein, as to them may respectively appertain.

STEPHEN COTTRELL.

STATE PAPERS

Presented to parliament April 21, relative to the rupture between England and Prussia.

No. I.—Copy of a dispatch from Francis James Jackson, esq. to the right hon. lord Mulgrave, dated Berlin, Jan. 27, 1806.

My lord,

I have the honour of inclosing to your lordship a letter, which although dated yesterday, I have just received (four P. M.) from baron Hardenberg. I hasten to forward it by estafette to the agent at Cuxhaven, in the hopes of its arriving there in time for the Thursday's packet. I also send to lord Cathcart by estafette, a copy of the Prussian minister's letter to me. I shall simply acknowledge the receipt of it, and inform his excellency, that I have forwarded his communication to your lordship. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) FRANCIS JACKSON.

Right hon. lord Mulgrave, &c. &c.

(Translation of Inclosure No. 1.)

Sir, I hasten to fulfil the promise given to lord Harrowby on the 8th of this month, to communicate to you, sir, as soon as a final decision should be taken on the subject, the additional circumstances relating to the security of the north of Germany, and to the guarantee by the king of the safety of those British troops which are in that part of the continent.

A messenger from Munich has just brought his majesty intelligence of the consummation of the arrangements which the présent conjuncture of affairs has induced him to enter into with France, in order to save those countries, and especially the states of Hanover, from
the

the misfortunes of another ruinous war, and to insure their tranquillity. As these arrangements stipulate particularly the committing of that country to the exclusive guard of the Prussian troops, and to the administration of the king, until the conclusion of a peace between England and France ; his majesty could not delay taking the necessary measures for the entry therein of a corps of his army, which will be under the orders of his excellency the general of cavalry, count Schulenberg Kehnert, to whom also the king has confided the administration of the country. His majesty, animated by the most lively desire to see the importance and the urgency of the motives which have induced him to take these steps, justly appreciated by his Britannic majesty, and his enlightened ministers, has directed baron Jacobi to give a detailed explanation thereof at London.

It would be superfluous to point out to your attention, how urgent and indispensable, in the present state of affairs, the re-embarkation of the English troops in the north of Germany is become ; since the retreat of the foreign troops is the condition, upon which France has promised not to order her troops to re-enter Hanover, and since also it was upon this supposition alone, that the king guaranteed their security. I presume, that lord Cathcart has already received, and is upon the point of executing, the orders of his court for the return of those troops, for which transports have been waiting for some time past. I have, however, to request, sir, that you would, for the purpose of still further dispatch, write to that commander in chief on the subject ; and, acquainting him with the

present circumstances, that you would induce him to hasten, as far as depends on him, a measure, which in these circumstances, and the approaching arrival of our troops, will not admit of any delay. I request you to accept the reiterated assurance of my high and perfect consideration.

(Signed) HARDENBERG.

Berlin, Jan. 26, 1805.

To Mr. Jackson, &c. &c.

No. II.—His Prussian majesty's proclamation on taking temporary possession of the electorate of Hanover.

We, Frederic William, king of Prussia, &c. &c. make known and declare as follows:—

After the events which have terminated in peace between Austria and France, all our endeavours have been directed to ward from these districts the flames of war, and its consequences, which momentarily threatened the north of Germany, and particularly the electorate of Brunswick. With this view, and as the only possible means to attain it, a convention has been concluded between us and the emperor of the French ; in pursuance of which, the states of his Britannic majesty in Germany will not be again occupied by French or other troops combined with them ; and, till the conclusion of a general peace, will be wholly occupied and governed by us : in pursuance of which, we have caused the Brunswick electoral countries to be occupied by the corps under the command of our general of cavalry, count von der Schulenberg Kehnert : to whom, till the peace, we intrust the administration of the said countries, &c. As by this measure we have in view the repose and tranquillity of the north of Germany

Germany and of the Brunswick states, so we have resolved to pay out of our treasury for the necessities for our troops, according to the peace-establishment, leaving the extraordinary expenses of a state of war to be defrayed by the country; while we, on the other hand, shall take care in general, that its revenues, during our administration, after deducting the expenses of government, shall only be appropriated to its advantage.—We further promise, that our troops shall observe the strictest discipline; that attention shall be given to all just complaints; and in general, that every quiet and peaceable inhabitant shall be maintained in his property and rights, and, in case of need, be vigorously protected.

Given under our own hand, at Berlin, the 27th January, 1806.

L. S. FREDERIC WILLIAM.
VON HARDENBERG.

No. III.—Copy of a note from Mr. secretary Fox to baron Jacobi Kloest, dated 17th March, 1806.

The undersigned is commanded by his majesty to state to baron Jacobi Kloest, for the information of his court, the great anxiety felt by his majesty at the manner in which possession has been taken of the electorate of Hanover. If his Prussian majesty judged it expedient, in order to prevent French troops from approaching so near that part of his frontier, to take to himself the military occupation of the electorate, it does not appear to his majesty, that it was by any means necessary that the civil government of that unhappy country should be subverted, or that an army more numerous, and consequently more injurious to the inhabitants, than necessity required,

should be maintained there. His majesty relies with the greatest confidence on his Prussian majesty's declaration, that the present occupation is merely temporary; but his majesty cannot but express a wish, that the declaration on this point were more solemnly made in the face of Europe. The honour of the court of Berlin, as well as the consideration mutually due to each other from two princes so nearly connected in blood and alliance, seem to call for a clear explanation on this important subject.

His majesty on his part desires to be equally as explicit, and to put an end to all hopes (if such indeed have been entertained by the court of Berlin) that any convenience of political arrangement, much less any offer of equivalent or indemnity, will ever induce his majesty so far to forget what is due to his own legitimate rights, as well as to the exemplary fidelity and attachment of his Hanoverian subjects, as to consent to the alienation of the electorate.

His majesty learns with concern, that it is in agitation to give up Anspach and other parts of his Prussian majesty's dominions in Bavaria, in consequence of a convention with France: but he does not pretend any right to interfere or to give any opinion with respect to the propriety of the measures, whatever they may be, which his Prussian majesty may deem eligible for the interest of his crown and people; at the same time it is to be observed, that his majesty, whether in his capacity of king of Great Britain, or in that of elector of Hanover, was in no wise a party to the convention alluded to, or responsible for its consequences. The cessions therefore which his Prussian majesty may make to his
majesty's

majesty's enemies, can surely never be alleged as a justification of taking to himself his majesty's lawful inheritance.

His majesty therefore hopes, that his Prussian majesty will follow the honourable dictates of his own heart, and will demonstrate to the world, that whatever sacrifices the present circumstances may induce him to make with respect to his own territories, he will not set the dreadful example of indemnifying himself at the expense of a third party, whose sentiments and conduct towards his Prussian majesty and his subjects have been uniformly friendly and pacific.

No. IV.—Note verbale.

Until the explosion of the last continental war, his Prussian majesty had no other object in view, than to secure the tranquillity of his monarchy, and that of the neighbouring states.

He was then able to effect this upon terms which met the entire approbation of every court. He has been desirous of doing the same since the breaking out of the present war. But the choice of the means has no longer been in his power. France has considered Hanover as her conquest, and her troops were on the point of entering it for the purpose of disposing of it definitely according to the pleasure of the French emperor, without the possibility of his Britannic majesty's preventing it.

The occupation of that country by his Prussian majesty, and the shutting of the ports in the German seas, and that of Lubeck against the British flag (as was the case during the possession of Hanover by the French), were the indispensable conditions of an arrangement by which the country is

secured against the entry of foreign troops, and the quiet of the north of Germany preserved.

This has not been obtained without painful sacrifices on his majesty's part. Those of the house of Hanover are in no degree to be attributed to the king's measures, but are the inevitable consequences of a war, which his conciliating policy has in vain endeavoured to prevent. This war might have produced still more serious consequences. The treaty between Prussia and France at least protects the northern states from further evils; and could every power but duly appreciate how much they are indebted to the system he has adopted, the king would with justice obtain the gratitude of all.

No. V.—Proclamation of count Schulenberg, announcing the shutting of the ports of the North Sea against the British ships and trade, dated Hanover, 28th of March 1806.

In a treaty, which has been concluded between his majesty the king of Prussia my most gracious sovereign, and his imperial majesty the emperor of France and king of Italy, it has been stipulated, that the ports of the North Sea, as well as all rivers running into it, shall be shut against the British ships and trade, in the same manner as when the French troops occupied the states of Hanover. In conformity to the orders I have received, I make this known to those whom it may concern, that they may guard against the consequences, as the troops of the king my master have received orders to warn off and not to admit such English ships as may endeavour to enter these ports and rivers, and as all necessary and proper measures will

will be adopted to prevent the introduction and transit of British goods.

(Signed) The comte de
SCHULENBERG KEHNERT,
His Prussian majesty's general of cavalry, and commander in chief of the corps d'armée in Hanover.

No. VI.—Proclamation of his Prussian majesty for taking definitive possession of Hanover.

We, Frederic William, king of Prussia, &c. &c. make known and declare as follows :

The wish to secure our faithful subjects and the neighbouring states of the north of Germany during the war, and to preserve and confirm the duration of the blessings of peace, was at all times the intention of our indefatigable endeavours. These wholesome measures were made known, upon some recent occasions, as the object of our late patent, dated January 27, 1806, according to which the electoral states of Brunswick Lunenburg in Germany were taken possession of by our troops, when the administration of the same passed into our hands. But in consequence of the exchange of the electorate of Hanover, in consideration of the cession of three of the provinces of our monarchy, and for the permanent tranquillity of our subjects and the neighbouring states, we have found it indispensably necessary to enter into and conclude a convention with his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy; and as the electoral states of the house of Brunswick, situated in Germany, were obtained by the emperor Napoleon by *right of conquest*, we hereby declare, that the *rightful possession* of the territory of

that house has passed over to us, in consideration of the cession of three of our provinces, and is now subject to our power only: consequently, from the present time, the government and the administration of these countries will be administered simply in our name alone, and under our supreme authority.

We therefore call upon all persons, whatever may have been the functions assigned them, to execute those functions only in our name, and under our authority.

Count Schulenberg Kehnert, and the commissioners who are attached to him, expect no less than that all the prelates, the burghers, and the inhabitants in general, will obediently conform themselves to the orders of things, which a new era has rendered necessary for their tranquillity and well-being; and in so doing, they will afford his majesty a proof of their devotion to their country.

So, on our part, nothing shall be neglected to confirm them in the persuasion of our paternal affection, and our sincere wish to render them happy.

(Signed)

FREDERIC WILLIAM.
SCHULENBERG.
HAUGWITZ.

April 1,
1806.

Message to the house on the 21st of April, respecting the present state of the relations of this country with Prussia.

“GEORGE R.

“His majesty thinks it proper to acquaint the house of commons, that he has found himself under the necessity of withdrawing his minister from the court of Berlin, and of adopting provisionally measures of just retaliation against the commerce

commerce and navigation of Prussia. His majesty deeply regrets this extension and aggravation of calamities already so severely felt by the nations of the continent, whose independence and prosperity he has never ceased to consider as intimately connected with those of his own people. But measures of direct hostility, deliberately adopted against him, have left him no alternative.

“In a moment of confidential intercourse, without even the pretence of any cause of complaint, forcible possession has been taken by Prussia of his majesty’s electoral dominions. Deeply as this event affected the interests of this kingdom, his majesty chose, nevertheless, to forbear, on this painful occasion, all recourse to the tried and affectionate attachment of his British subjects. He remonstrated, by amicable negotiation, against the injury he had sustained, and rested his claim for reparation on the moderation of his conduct, on the justice of his representations, and on the common interest which Prussia herself must ultimately feel, to resist a system destructive of the security of all legitimate possession. But when, instead of receiving assurances conformable to this just expectation, his majesty was informed, that the determination had been taken of excluding by force the vessels and the commodities of this kingdom from ports and countries under the lawful dominion or forcible control of Prussia, his majesty could no longer delay to act, without neglecting the first duty which he owes to his people. The dignity of his crown and the interests of his subjects equally forbid his acquiescing in this open and unprovoked aggression. He has no doubt of the

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full support of his parliament in vindicating the honour of the British flag, and the freedom of the British navigation; and he will look with anxious expectation to that moment when a more dignified and enlightened policy, on the part of Prussia, shall remove every impediment to the renewal of peace and friendship with a power with whom his majesty has no other cause of difference than that now created by these hostile acts.

“G. R.”

At the court at the Queen’s palace, the 17th of September 1806, present, the king’s most excellent majesty in council.

Whereas the capital city, town, and fortress of Buenos Ayres, and its dependencies, have been conquered by his majesty’s forces, and the territory and forts of the same are delivered up to his majesty, his majesty is thereupon pleased to order and declare, that all his loving subjects may lawfully trade to and from the said capital city, town, and fortress of Buenos Ayres, and its dependencies, including therein all and every the territories belonging to, or forming a part of the government of the same, in British ships, owned by his majesty’s subjects, and navigated according to law; or in ships *bonâ fide* belonging to any of the subjects or native inhabitants of the said city, town, or territories, such native inhabitants being peaceably resident within the same, and under the obedience of his majesty’s government there; and that such trade shall be subject to the same duties, rules, regulations, conditions, restrictions, penalties, and forfeitures, to which the trade to and from his majesty’s colonies,

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plantations, and islands in the West Indies and South America is, or shall be subject by law, except as is hereinafter specified :

And his majesty is further pleased to order and declare, that all commodities, being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said capital city, town, and fortress of Buenos Ayres, and its dependencies, including therein all and every the territories belonging to, or forming a part of the government of the same, or which have been usually exported therefrom, shall be permitted to be imported into any of the ports of the united kingdom in British ships, owned by his majesty's subjects, and navigated according to law ; or in ships *bonâ fide* belonging to any of the subjects or native inhabitants of the said city, town, or territories, such native inhabitants being peaceably resident within the same, and under the obedience of his majesty's government there ; and that such commodities shall be subject to the same duties, rules, regulations, restrictions, conditions, penalties, and forfeitures, as articles of the like sort are subject to coming from his majesty's colonies, plantations, or islands, in the West Indies or South America :

And whereas information has been received, that the commander of his majesty's forces, to whom the said city, town, and fortress have surrendered, has reduced the duties on importation into the same, from about thirty-four and a half per cent. *ad valorem*, to ten per cent. *ad valorem*, and two and a half per cent. for the consulate or municipal duties, making, in the whole, twelve and one-half per cent. on all articles imported into the said place and dependencies in British ships, owned by his majes-

ty's subjects, and navigated according to law ; or in ships *bonâ fide* belonging to any of the subjects or native inhabitants of the city, town, or territories, such native inhabitants being peaceably resident within the same, and under the obedience of his majesty's government there ; his majesty is thereupon pleased to order and declare, that the said reduced duties shall continue to be levied, and no other, on all articles so imported, with the exception of German linens, which are to continue to be subject to the same duties as were paid thereon before the conquest of the said place by his majesty's arms, until his majesty's pleasure shall be further signified ;---and it is hereby further ordered, that it shall not be lawful for any slave or slaves to be landed, or imported, or brought into the said city, town, and fortress of Buenos Ayres, and its dependencies, including therein all and every the territories belonging to, or forming a part of, the government of the same as aforesaid, upon pain that all slaves so landed, imported, or brought, together with the vessels bringing in the same, or from which the same shall be landed, and their cargoes shall become forfeited to his majesty, his heirs and successors :---provided always, that this prohibition shall not extend to the several cases of slaves *bonâ fide* employed in navigating any ships trading to or from the said place, or of slaves *bonâ fide* employed as domestic slaves, and coming into the said place with their masters ; or of slaves in any manner employed in his majesty's naval or military service :---And the right honourable the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury, and the lords commissioners of the admiralty, are

are to give the necessary directions herein as to them may respectively appertain.

W. FAWKENER.

At the court at the Queen's palace, the 17th of September 1806, present, the king's most excellent majesty in council.

Whereas by an act made and passed in the last session of the present parliament, and in the present year of his majesty's reign, entitled, "An act for authorising his majesty in council to allow, during the present war, and for six months after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace, the importation and exportation of certain goods and commodities in neutral ships into, and from his majesty's territories in the West Indies and continent of South America;" It is enacted, that from and after the passing of the said act, it shall and may be lawful for his majesty, his heirs and successors, by and with the advice of his and their privy council, to permit, or to authorise the governors of the islands and territories hereinafter mentioned, in such manner, and under such restrictions as to his majesty, by and with the advice of his privy council, shall seem fit to permit, when the necessity of the case shall appear to his majesty, with the advice of his privy council to require it, from time to time during the present war, and for six months after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace, the importation into, and the exportation from, any island in the West Indies (in which description the Bahama Islands and the Bermuda or Somer Islands are included), or any lands or territories on the continent of South America to his majesty be-

longing, of any such articles, goods, and commodities as shall be mentioned in such order of his majesty in council, in any ships or vessels belonging to the subjects of any state in amity with his majesty, in such manner as his majesty, his heirs and successors, by and with the advice aforesaid, shall direct; provided such ships or vessels shall duly enter into, report, and deliver their respective cargoes, and reload at such ports only, where regular custom-houses shall have been established:

And whereas it appears at present to be necessary to permit, for a limited time, subject to be sooner terminated, varied, or altered, as is hereinafter provided, the importation into, and exportation from the islands and territories of his majesty in the West Indies, (including the Bahama Islands and the Bermuda or Somer Islands,) and the lands and territories on the continent of South America to his majesty belonging, of certain articles, goods, and commodities hereinafter mentioned, in any ships or vessels belonging to the subjects of any state in amity with his majesty; his majesty is thereupon pleased, by and with the advice of his privy council, to order, and doth hereby order, that the governors and lieutenant-governors of his majesty's islands and colonies in the West Indies, (in which description the Bahama Islands and the Bermuda or Somer Islands are included,) and of any lands or territories on the continent of South America to his majesty belonging, and each and every of such governors and lieutenant-governors shall be authorised, and they, and each, and every of them are hereby authorised to permit for twelve months from the date hereof, sub-

ject to be sooner terminated, varied, or altered as is hereinafter provided, in any ships or vessels belonging to the subjects of any state in amity with his majesty, the importation into the said islands, colonies, lands and territories respectively, of staves and lumber, and also of every kind of provisions (beef, pork and butter always excepted), which are of the growth or produce of the country to which such ship or vessel importing the same shall belong; and also the exportation from the said islands, colonies, lands and territories respectively, into which such importation of staves, lumber, and provisions as aforesaid, shall be made, of rum and molasses, and of any other articles, goods, and commodities whatsoever, except sugar, indigo, cotton, wool, coffee, and cocoa; provided always, that such ships or vessels shall duly enter into, report, deliver their respective cargoes, and reload at such ports only where regular custom-houses shall have been established: And his majesty, by and with the advice of his said privy council, is further pleased to order, and doth hereby order, that notwithstanding any thing hereinbefore contained, the said permission and authority to import and export, shall cease and determine, or be varied and altered before the expiration of the above-mentioned period of twelve months, at the expiration of six months after notification in the London Gazette of any order of his majesty, by and with the advice of his privy council, for revoking, varying, or altering such permission or authority, or shall cease and determine at the expiration of six months after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace.

W. FAWKENER.

At the court at the Queen's palace, the 1st of October 1806, present, the king's most excellent majesty in council,

Whereas it has been represented to his majesty, that, over and above the royal duties, and the consulate or municipal duties, payable upon divers articles exported from the city, town, and fortress of Buenos Ayres, and its dependencies, including therein all and every the territories belonging to, or forming a part of, the government of the same, a duty of two reals upon each ox hide, and of one real upon each horse hide, exported, was levied and paid during the time the said city, town, and fortress of Buenos Ayres, and its dependencies, were under the Spanish government: And whereas the commander of his majesty's forces, to whom the said city, town, and fortress have surrendered, has thought fit, until his majesty's pleasure should be known, to reduce the said additional duty to one real upon each ox hide, and to make a proportionate reduction of the duty payable upon each horse hide exported; his majesty is thereupon pleased to order and declare, that the said reduced duties, and no other, shall, until the further signification of his majesty's pleasure, continue to be paid upon each ox hide and horse hide exported as aforesaid, in British ships, owned by his majesty's subjects, and navigated according to law; or in ships *bona fide* belonging to any of the subjects or native inhabitants of the said city, town, and territories, such native inhabitants being peaceably resident within the same, and under the obedience of his majesty's government there: And the right honourable the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury,

treasury, and the lords commissioners of the admiralty, are to give the necessary directions herein as to them may respectively appertain.

W. FAWKENER.

At the court at the Queen's palace, the 1st of October 1806, present, the king's most excellent majesty in council.

It is this day ordered by his majesty, by and with the advice of his privy council, that horses, mules, asses, neat cattle, sheep, hogs, poultry, and every other species of live stock, and live provisions, be added to the articles which his majesty by his order in council of the 17th of last month, has authorised the governors, and lieutenant-governors of his majesty's islands and colonies in the West Indies, (in which description the Bahama Islands and the Bermuda or Somer Islands are included,) and of any lands or territories on the continent of South America to his majesty belonging, to permit to be imported into the said islands, colonies, lands and territories, respectively; and that the said additional articles be accordingly permitted to be so imported, in the manner, for the time, and under the terms and conditions mentioned in the said order.

W. FAWKENER.

DECLARATION.

George the Third, by the grace of God, of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, duke of Brunswick and Lunenburgh, arch-treasurer and elector of the holy Roman empire, &c. &c.

The court of Prussia has avow-

ed those hostile designs, which she thought to conceal by her friendly professions.

The note *verbale*, delivered on the 4th of April by the Prussian envoy, baron Jacobi Kloest, to the British ministry, announces that the electorate of Hanover has been taken possession of, and that the ports of the German Sea and of Lubeck have been closed against the British flag.

This declaration gives the lie to all those assurances by which the cabinet of Berlin has hitherto endeavoured to cloke its proceeding: to which it moreover adds the pretension that his Prussian majesty has acquired, by his system of policy, claims to the gratitude of all the Northern powers.

Thus actually dispossessed of the antient inheritance of my family, and insulted in my rights as a sovereign, I have ordered those measures to be taken which the honour of my crown require: but I still owe it to myself, to Europe, and to my subjects, to make a public declaration of my sentiments, as elector of Brunswick Lunenburgh, upon the unjust usurpation of my German possessions.

It is not necessary to prove how contrary this act is to the rights of nations, or to the laws of the German empire. Their infraction is too evident to be required to be proved. It is the most sacred principles of good faith, of honour, and in fact of all the obligations upon which the reciprocal safety of different states amongst themselves, and of each civil society in itself, repose, which are trodden under foot in such a manner, that the world would have difficulty in believing it, if I did not cause the facts to be laid before them, which are authenticated in the narrative

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which I have ordered to be prepared.

The proceedings of the court of Berlin, when the electorate was occupied by its troops in 1801,—its conduct, far from being friendly during the negotiation for the indemnities which followed the peace of Luneville,—the declaration which it made when France prepared to invade the electorate,—and, lastly, the burthensome conditions under which it endeavoured to cause it to be evacuated, to substitute her own troops instead of those of France, had given too many proofs to the government of Hanover, not to oblige it to endeavour to avoid all sort of intervention on the part of this power, even at the moment that it was on the point of engaging in a dispute with France. The events which retarded the arrival in Hanover of the expedition concerted between Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden, gave the Prussian troops an opportunity of anticipating them, after the French army had been obliged to evacuate the electorate.

This step was accompanied by the most friendly protestations on the part of Prussia. She invited the Hanoverian government to resume its functions in my name, and to collect the wreck of the army.

The country, already so unfortunate, doubly felt the weight of the numerous requisitions extorted by the Prussian corps, without the least regard to the situation in which the French left it.

After the unfortunate result of the campaign of the allies in the South of the empire, an attack in the North was to be expected. His imperial majesty of Russia, to obviate the dangers to which Prussia might be exposed, placed, in con-

sequence of the convention of Potsdam, his troops under count de Tolstoy, and the corps of general Benningsen, under the orders of his Prussian majesty, and promised him, moreover, all the assistance for which he might have occasion. It was scarcely to be expected that Prussia would avail herself of this advantage, and of that which the promise of the subsidy she had asked of Great Britain gave her, to obtain from France terms contrary to the interests which these resources were intended to protect. This, notwithstanding, has actually happened. The secret treaty, the effects of which are beginning to appear, was signed by count Haugwitz and the French general Duroc, the 15th of December, 1805, the period fixed as the term when Prussia was to declare against France, in case that power should have rejected the propositions which count Haugwitz was to make to her in consequence of the convention of Potsdam.

Seven days after, December 22, the cabinet of Berlin proposed to the British ambassador the arrangements to be taken, in common with the Prussian generals, for the positions of the allied armies in Lower Saxony; and dispatched, in consequence, lieutenant-colonel baron de Krusemark, with a letter to the Hanoverian government, to induce it to furnish provisions for the French garrison at Hemeln.

It was necessary to concur in this arrangement, (which was only provisionally terminated the 4th of January,) because it was to prevent the French troops from undertaking any thing against Hanover during the negotiation.

Was the court of Berlin then ignorant in what manner count Haug-

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witz had concluded this negotiation? Did it not know, before the signature of the treaty, what would be the end of it? Or, did that minister dispose as he pleased of the good faith of his master?

It was on the 27th of January that the cabinet of Berlin announced to the Hanoverian government, "that in consequence of a treaty signified and ratified by the two parties, my German possessions would no longer be occupied by the French troops, that they would be entirely evacuated by those who were still there, and delivered up, until a future peace between England and France should have decided their condition, to the protection of the troops of his Prussian majesty, and to his exclusive administration." The Hanoverian government was required, but to no purpose, to intimate to all the public officers, that they were, for the future, to consider themselves as finally responsible to the Prussian commission of administration, excluding all foreign reference.

The dispatch addressed the 25th of January to the Prussian minister, and intended to justify his proceedings, was signed with the king of Prussia's own hand. It ended with these words, "I think it unnecessary to observe how much the territories in question ought to be satisfied with this change of scene; and my wishes would be fulfilled if, in consequence of the disinterested views by which I am impelled, the administration I have taken upon me should turn out to the happiness of the country and its inhabitants; and by that means satisfactory to his Britannic majesty, to whom I desire nothing more than to give, in this instance, as in

all others, all the proofs of consideration, of deference, and of friendship, which circumstances may put in my power."

The experience of the past, and a well-founded apprehension of the future, did not allow me to hesitate about the part necessary to be taken; and my electoral government was instructed not to enter into any negotiation, the object of which might have been to avoid a new French invasion, by allowing the Prussians to occupy Hanover.

The protest made upon this occasion by my electoral minister of state, was ineffectual. The king of Prussia caused the greatest part of the country to be occupied at the moment that my troops re-embarked; and his measures were executed without the least regard.

It was too easy to foresee that count Haugwitz would find means at Paris to bring back the arrangement between Prussia and France, announced here as ratified by the contracting parties, to its original intention.

This was what took place; and the French troops took possession of Anspach, one of the objects of compensation according to the treaty of December 15, the very day that the marquis de Lucchesini could reach Berlin with intelligence that France required the execution of the articles agreed upon at Vienna.

The answer returned by the British cabinet to the communication of January 25, did not arrive at Berlin until after the minister of state, baron Hardenberg, had announced to the British envoy the hostile measures which have compelled me to suspend my relations with a court which could so far forget itself.

The Prussian note of April 4 can furnish no good arguments to establish an unjustifiable measure.

It begins by vaunting the pacific dispositions of Prussia. This disposition is no further sincere than as it has for its foundation the principles of a just neutrality. The note delivered by the cabinet of Berlin to the French minister on the 14th of October, at the very instant that Prussia appeared to feel the affront which she received by the violation of the territory of Anspach, acknowledges that the conduct which she had followed to that time had proved of advantage to France.

Her actions had much less pretensions to the character of impartiality. After having permitted the French troops who seized on the electorate of Hanover a passage through the Prussian territory, she declared herself ready to oppose, sword in hand, that which the emperor of Russia had demanded for his armies.

France herself forced the passage: she pretended to offer excuses for that step, but it was in a manner equally offensive.

She had seen too clearly where the resentment of Prussia would terminate, which in fact appeared to be stifled when his imperial majesty of Russia engaged in a personal communication with the king.

Prussia then demanded subsidies of Great Britain, which were promised to her, and she signed the convention of Potsdam, the conditions of which she would doubtless have been more disposed to fulfil, if I could have so far forgotten my duty as to consent to the proposition of ceding the electorate of Hanover for some Prussian province.

Prussia affirms, that from the events of the war, she has not had the choice of means to secure the safety of its monarchy, and of the states of the North. She wishes to make it appear, that she has been compelled to aggrandize herself, and to become the instrument, rather than the object, of the vengeance of my enemies.

Such an avowal does not become a great power. All Europe knows that it depended on Prussia, before the battle of Austerlitz, to give repose to Europe, if she had taken the part which her real interests and the outraged honour of her monarchy dictated to her. She can no longer be excused, after having missed such an opportunity; and even since the event of the 2d of December, did she not command an army of 250,000 men, who still remember the victories it obtained under the great Frederick, which was in the best dispositions, and supported by the whole Russian army, two corps of which were actually under the command of the king of Prussia?

She would, without doubt, have been subject to certain risks; but she found herself in a situation when every danger must be encountered to save the honour of the state. The prince who hesitates in making a choice, destroys the principle which serves as the basis of a military monarchy; and Prussia ought already to begin to feel the sacrifice she has made of her independence.

The note of April 4 affirms, "that France had considered the electorate as its conquest, and that its troops had been on the point of re-entering it, to make a definitive disposal of it."

The electorate of Hanover, as
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an integral part of the Germanic empire, is not concerned in the war between Great Britain and France; nevertheless, it has been unjustly invaded by that power, which has, notwithstanding, frequently indicated the object for which she was disposed to restore it.

France was at length compelled to abandon the country, and forty thousand of my troops, and those of my allies, were established there when the count de Haugwitz signed the treaty which disposes of my states. It is true, that the Russian corps was then at the disposal of his Prussian majesty; but its chief, with the genuine spirit of an honourable man, was not the less determined to fight, if the allies of his master were attacked: we shall not speak of the French garrison which remained at Hameln, insufficient in point of number, deprived of the means of defence, and on the point of being besieged, when the promises of Prussia caused the plan to be abandoned.

The intention of France to dispose definitively of the electorate, would have been contrary to the assertions she has so often made. It would, moreover, have been contrary to the usage of war, since even a conquest is not definitively disposed of before a peace; and particularly at a moment when a wish might exist to manifest a pacific disposition.

Prussia had no right to judge if Great Britain had the means of opposing the return of my enemies to the electorate. Her power furnishes her with the means of bringing the war to an honourable end, for the interests she defends; but it is difficult to conceive in what light Prussia pretends that her

measures removed troops that are strangers to the electorate, and ensure the repose of the North. Her troops, in consequence of the treacherous conduct of her cabinet, will remain as much strangers to the electorate as the French troops.

Prussia should not speak of her sacrifices at the moment when her only aim is to aggrandize herself, unless she feels the loss of her independence to be such, and how much she has departed from her duty, in abandoning one of the oldest possessions of her house, and of subjects who implored, in vain, her assistance. Besides, her sacrifices have no connection with my system of policy, and confer no right on her to usurp the government of my German subjects, whose fidelity nothing has hitherto shaken, and which they will retain towards my person, and a family of princes who for many ages have only sought their happiness.

It is evident that the conduct of the court of Berlin is not the free expression of the will of its sovereign, but the consequence of the influence exercised by my enemies in the cabinet of that prince. All the courts, and all the states, however, who can judge of circumstances, and all that they owe to the system adopted by the court of Berlin, will agree that the act committed against a sovereign united to his Prussian majesty by the ties of blood, and until now by those of friendship, places the safety of Europe in greater danger than any act of hostility on the part of a power with which one might be at open war.

Convinced of the justice of my cause, I make my appeal to all the powers of Europe, who are interested in resisting the consolidation

tion of a system, which, by threatening the political existence of an integral part of the German empire, brings into question the security of the whole. I demand, most earnestly, the constitutional aid which is due to me as elector, from the emperor, its august head, as well as Russia and Sweden, the powers who have guaranteed its constitution, and who have already manifested, and still continue to manifest, the most honourable disposition for the preservation of my states.

Lastly, I protest in the most solemn manner, for myself, and my heirs, against every encroachment on my rights in the electorate of Brunswick-Lunenburgh, and its dependencies; and I repeat, in quality of elector, the declaration made by the minister of my crown at the court of Berlin, that no advantage, arising from political arrangements, much less any offer whatever of an indemnity or equivalent, shall ever engage me to forget what I owe to my dignity, the attachment and exemplary fidelity of my Hanoverian subjects, so as to yield my consent to the alienation of my electorate.

Given at the palace of Windsor,
the 25th day of April 1806,
in the 46th year of my reign.

(L. S.) GEORGE R.

F. count de Munster.

DECLARATION OF HIS BRITANNIC
MAJESTY, OCT. 21.

The negotiations in which his majesty has been engaged with France having terminated unsuccessfully, his majesty thinks proper to make this public declaration to his subjects and to Europe, of the circumstances which have led

to an issue which his majesty deeply regrets. He has no object nearer to his heart than the conclusion of a secure and permanent peace. He laments the continuance of a war affecting the happiness of so many nations, and which, even amidst all the successes that attend his arms, is so burthensome to his faithful and affectionate people. But he is confident that there can arise on this occasion no other sentiment, either in his own dominions, or in any part of Europe, than that of an increased conviction that the restoration of general tranquillity is retarded only by the injustice and ambition of the enemy.

The French government, unsatisfied with its immense acquisitions on the continent, still openly perseveres in a system destructive of the independence of every other power. War is pursued, not for security, but for conquest; and negotiations for peace appear to be entered into for no other object than that of deluding the neighbouring powers into a state of false security, while France is herself preparing, arranging, and executing her unremitted projects of encroachment and aggression.

Her conduct in the recent discussions has afforded but too many proofs of this disposition.

The negotiation originated in an offer made by the French government of treating for peace on the basis of actual possession, which was stated to admit of mutual compensation; and a distinct assurance was added, that his majesty's German dominions, which had been attacked without even the pretence of any cause of hostility, should be restored.

Such a proposal appeared to his majesty to afford a just foundation for

for negotiating: it was therefore accepted, with this reserve, that the negotiation should be conducted by his majesty in concert with his allies.

No sooner had this basis been mutually admitted, than it was departed from by the enemy, and that too in points of so great importance as to call for an immediate declaration on the part of his majesty, that unless the principles proposed by France herself were adhered to, the communications which had been opened between the two governments must at once be closed.

This produced new professions of the disposition of France to make considerable sacrifices for the attainment of peace, if the discussions were suffered to proceed; at the same time that a difficulty was started on account of the want of full powers in the person entrusted by his majesty with this communication. Steps were thereupon taken by his majesty for opening a regular negotiation by ministers duly authorised, in order to ascertain in a manner the most satisfactory and authentic, whether peace could be obtained on terms honourable to the king and his allies, and consistent with the general security of Europe.

During these proceedings, a minister sent by the emperor of Russia to treat for the same important object, in concert with his majesty's government, was induced by the artifices of the enemy to sign a separate treaty, on terms equally repugnant to the honour and interests of his imperial majesty.

Unmoved by this unexpected event, the king continued to negotiate precisely on the same principles as before. He relied, with

confidence, which experience has amply justified, on the good faith and steadiness of an ally, in concert with whom he had begun to treat, and whose interests he had maintained throughout with the same firmness as his own.

The French government, on the contrary, elated by this advantage, of which it boasted as equal in importance to the most decisive victory, departed in every conference more and more widely from its own offers and engagements. Not only did it take upon itself to change at its own will the basis of the negotiation with Great Britain, but violated in points still more important, every principle of good faith with Russia. The chief inducement offered to that power as the price of all the sacrifices extorted from her minister, had been the preservation of Germany. Yet, before the decision of Russia on this treaty could be known, France had already annihilated the whole frame and constitution of the German empire; had reduced under her own yoke a large proportion of the states and provinces of Germany; and, not with this open contempt of obligations so recently contracted, had, at the same time, instigated the Porte to measures directly subversive of her subsisting engagements with Russia.

While such a conduct was pursued towards his majesty, towards his allies, and towards all independent powers, there appeared so little hope of any favourable issue to the negotiation, that his majesty's plenipotentiaries demanded their passports to return to England.

This demand was at first eluded by an unusual and unexplained delay, and the French government afterwards, by some material concessions, accompanied with intimations

mations that others of still greater consequence might be the result of further discussion, procured a renewal of the conferences, which were protracted from day to day, till at length it was announced at Paris that the emperor of Russia had indignantly rejected the unauthorised and separate treaty signed by his minister.

In consequence of this important event, the strongest assurances were given to his majesty's minister, that France was now prepared to make sacrifices to a great extent, in order, by securing peace with Great Britain, to re-establish the tranquillity of the world.

The objects of these assurances appeared, however, to be, that of engaging his majesty in a separate negotiation, to the exclusion of his allies; a proposal which his majesty had rejected in the outset, and which he could still less admit of at a time when the conduct of Russia had imposed on him an increased obligation not to separate his interest from those of so faithful an ally. To these insidious overtures his majesty steadily refused to listen; but he took the most effectual method to avoid all appearance of delay, and to accelerate, if possible, the favourable issue of the negotiation. The confidential intercourse which he had constantly maintained with Russia, enabled his majesty to specify the terms on which peace with that power might be obtained; and his minister was accordingly instructed to state to France, in addition to his own demands, those of his ally, to reduce them into distinct articles, and even to conclude on those grounds a provisional treaty; to take effect whenever Russia should signify her accession.

This form of negotiating was

after some objection acceded to by France; terms were now offered to his majesty more nearly approaching than before to the original basis of negotiation; but these were still far short of what his majesty had uniformly insisted on, and was now more than ever entitled to expect; and the decisive rejection of the just demands of Russia, as well as of the conditions proposed by his majesty in behalf of his other allies, left to his majesty no other course than that of ordering his minister to terminate the discussion and return to England.

The foregoing short and simple exposition of facts stands in need of no comment. The first overtures which led to negotiation were made by the enemy, and they were accepted by his majesty in the sincerest spirit of peace. Every opening which seemed to afford the most distant prospect of accommodation has been anxiously embraced, nor was the negotiation finally broken off while any hope of a favourable issue could be entertained. His majesty's demands were uniformly just and reasonable; directed to no objects of personal aggrandisement, but to such only as were indispensably required by the honour of his crown, his engagements to his allies, and a due consideration of the general interests of Europe.

It is with heartfelt concern that his majesty contemplates the continuance of those evils always inseparable from a state of war; but it is with his enemies that this awful responsibility rests; and for the issue of the contest his majesty trusts with confidence, to the justice of his cause; to the resources and bravery of his people; to the fidelity of his allies; and above all,

to the protection and support of the Divine Providence.

In contributing to the great efforts which such a contest must unavoidably require, his faithful and affectionate subjects will not forget that all their dearest interests are at stake; that no sacrifices they can be called upon to make are to be compared with the certain disgrace and ruin of yielding to the injurious pretences of the enemy; that with the inviolable maintenance of the good faith and public honour of their country, its prosperity, its strength, and its independence, are essentially connected; and that in asserting the rights, and upholding the dignity of the British empire, they defend the most powerful bulwark of the liberties of mankind.

TREATIES, &c.

Presented by his majesty's command to both houses of parliament, January 28, 1806.

Treaty of concert between his majesty and the emperor of all the Russias, signed at St. Petersburg, the 11th April, 1805.

In the name of The Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.

His majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, animated with the desire of restoring to Europe the peace, independence, and happiness, of which it is deprived by the unbounded ambition of the French government, and the immoderate degree of influence which it is striving to arrogate to itself, have resolved to employ every means in their power to obtain this salutary end, and to pre-

vent the renewal of similar disastrous circumstances; and they have named in consequence, for the purpose of fixing and agreeing upon those measures, which their magnanimous intentions may call for, viz. his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the lord Granville Leveson Gower, member of parliament of the said united kingdom, one of his majesty's privy councillors, and his ambassador-extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his majesty the emperor of all the Russias; and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, the sieur Adam prince of Czartoryski, one of his privy councillors, member of the council of state, senator, adjunct minister for foreign affairs, member of the general direction of the schools, curator of the imperial university of Wilna and of its district, lieutenant of the grand prior of the sovereign order of St. John of Jerusalem, of the Russian catholic priory, and knight of the order of St. Anne, and commander of that of St. John of Jerusalem; and the sieur Nicolas of Novossilzoff, his present chamberlain, adjunct minister of justice, charged with the examination of the projects presented to his majesty, and with other special commissions, president of the academy of sciences, member of the general direction of the schools, curator of the university of St. Petersburg and of its district, and knight of the order of St. Vladimir, who, after having verified and exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I. As the state of suffering in which Europe is placed demands speedy remedy, their majesties the king of the united kingdom

dom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the emperor of all the Russias, have mutually agreed to consult upon the means of putting a stop thereto, without waiting for further encroachments on the part of the French government. They have agreed in consequence to employ the most speedy and most efficacious means to form a general league of the states of Europe, and to engage them to accede to the present concert; and, in order to accomplish the end proposed, to collect together a force, which, independently of the succours furnished by his Britannic majesty, may amount to 500,000 effective men; and to employ the same with energy, in order either to induce or to compel the French government to agree to the re-establishment of peace and of the equilibrium of Europe.

Art. II. The object of this league will be to carry into effect what is proposed by the present concert, namely;

(a.) The evacuation of the country of Hanover and of the North of Germany.

(b.) The establishment of the independence of the republics of Holland and Switzerland.

(c.) The re-establishment of the king of Sardinia in Piedmont with as large an augmentation of territory as circumstances will permit.

(d.) The future security of the kingdom of Naples, and the complete evacuation of Italy, the island of Elba included, by the French forces.

(e.) The establishment of an order of things in Europe, which may effectually guarantee the security and independence of the different states, and present a solid barrier against future usurpations.

Art. III. His Britannic majesty, in order to concur efficaciously on

his side to the happy effects of the present concert, engages to contribute to the common efforts, by employing his forces both by sea and land, as well as his vessels adapted for transporting troops, in such manner as shall be determined upon in the general plan of operations; his majesty will moreover assist the different powers who shall accede thereto by subsidies, the amount of which shall correspond to the respective forces which shall be employed; and in order that the said pecuniary succours may be proportioned in the manner most conducive to the general good, and to assist the powers in proportion to the exertions they may make to contribute to the common success, it is agreed, that these subsidies (barring particular arrangements), shall be furnished in the proportion of 1,250,000*l.* sterling, for each 100,000 men of regular troops, and so in proportion for a greater or smaller number, payable according to the conditions hereinafter specified.

Art. IV. The said subsidies shall be payable by instalments, from month to month, in proportion to the forces which each power shall employ in pursuance of its engagements, to combat the common enemy, and according to the official report of the armies employed at the opening of the campaign, and of the several reinforcements which may join them. An arrangement shall be made in conformity with the plan of operations, which shall be forthwith regulated as to the period when these subsidies shall begin to be paid, and the mode and place of payment shall be settled, so as to suit the convenience of each of the belligerent parties. His Britannic majesty will likewise be prepared to advance within

within the current year, a sum for putting the troops in motion. This sum shall be settled by particular arrangements to be entered into by each power, who shall take part in this concert; but his said majesty understands that the whole of the sums to be furnished to any power within the current year, as well on account of the said advance as for the monthly subsidies, is in no case to exceed the proportion of 1,250,000*l.* sterling, for every 100,000 men.

Art. V. The high contracting parties agree that the different members of the league shall respectively be permitted to retain accredited persons with the commanders in chief of the different armies, to carry on the correspondence, and to attend to the military operations.

Art. VI. Their majesties agree, that in the event of a league being formed, such as is pointed out in the first article, they will not make peace with France but by the common consent of all the powers who shall become parties in the said league; and also that the continental powers shall not recall their forces before the peace: moreover, his Britannic majesty engages to continue the payment of the subsidies during the continuance of the war.

Art. VII. The present concert, which is mutually acknowledged by the high contracting parties to be equally valid and binding as the most solemn treaty, shall be ratified by his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and by his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at St. Petersburg within the space of ten weeks, or sooner if possible.

In testimony whereof the re-

spective plenipotentiaries, have signed the same, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms. Done at St. Petersburg, the 30th March---11th April, in the year 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSILZOFF.

First separate article of the treaty of concert between his majesty and the emperor of Russia, signed at St. Petersburg, 30th March—11th April 1805.

His majesty the emperor of all the Russias, having made known to his Britannic majesty his arrangements with their majesties the emperor of Germany and the king of Sweden, his Britannic majesty engages to fulfil his stipulations of the present treaty of concert towards each of those powers, if, in the space of four months, reckoning from the day of the signature of the present instrument, both those powers, or one of them, shall have caused their forces to act against France, by virtue of the engagements they have taken with his majesty the emperor of all the Russias.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty of concert signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In witness whereof, we the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms. Done at St. Petersburg this 30th of March—11th April, in the year 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSILZOFF.

Fourth

Fourth separate article of the treaty of concert between his majesty and the emperor of Russia, signed at St. Petersburg, 11th April---30th March, 1805.

The collecting of 500,000 effective men, mentioned in article I. of the treaty of concert signed this day, not being so easy as it is desirable, their majesties have agreed that it should be carried into execution as soon as it should be possible to oppose to France an active force of 400,000 men, composed in the following manner: Austria will supply 250,000 men, Russia not less than 115,000 men, independently of the levies made by her in Albania, in Greece, &c.: and the remainder of the 400,000 will be made up by the troops of Naples, Hanover, Sardinia, and others.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity, as if it were inserted, word for word, in the treaty of concert signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In witness whereof, we, the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at St. Petersburg, this 11th of April---30th March, in the year 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSSILZOFF.

Fifth separate article of the treaty of concert between his majesty and the emperor of Russia, signed at St. Petersburg, 11th April---30th March 1805.

His majesty the emperor of all the Russias engages also to march as soon as possible an army of not less than 60,000 men to the frontiers of Austria, and also another

of not less than 80,000 men to the Prussian frontiers, to be ready to co-operate with the said courts in the proportion established by the treaty of concert signed this day, and to support them respectively in case they should be attacked by France, who might suppose them to be engaged in some negotiation tending towards an object contrary to her views; but it is understood, that independently of the 115,000 men, which his imperial majesty of all the Russias will cause to act against the French, he will keep bodies of reserve and observation upon his frontiers.

It is moreover agreed, that as the forces promised by his majesty the emperor of all the Russias shall all, or in part, quit the frontiers of his empire, his Britannic majesty will pay them the subsidies at the rate established by the present treaty of concert, until the return of the said forces to their homes; and, moreover, the equivalent of three months of subsidy as a *premiere mise en campagne*.

The Russian troops already stationed at the Seven Islands, or which may be intended to be transported thither, will not enjoy the advantage of the subsidies and of the *premiere mise en campagne*, stipulated in the present article, before the day of their leaving the Seven Islands to commence their operations against the French.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty of concert signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In witness whereof we the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done

Done at St. Petersburg, the 11th April (30th March) 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSSILZOFF.

Sixth separate Article of the treaty of concert between his majesty and the emperor of Russia, signed at St. Petersburg, 11th April (30th March) 1805.

His majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, being disposed to form an energetic concert, with the sole view of insuring to Europe a lasting and solid peace, founded upon the principles of justice, equity, and the law of nations, by which they are constantly guided, are aware of the necessity of a mutual understanding at this time upon several principles, which they will evince in pursuance of a previous concert, as soon as the events of the war may render it necessary.

These principles are in no degree to control the public opinion in France, or in any other countries where the combined armies may carry on their operations, with respect to the form of government which it may be proper to adopt; nor to appropriate to themselves, till a peace should be concluded, any of the conquests made by one or the other of the belligerent parties; and to take possession of the towns and territories which may be wrested from the common enemy in the name of the country or state to which by acknowledged right they belong, and in all other cases, in the name of all the members of the league; and finally, to assemble, at the termination of the war, a general congress, to discuss and fix the provisions of the law of nations, on a more determined ba-

sis than unfortunately has hitherto been practicable; and to insure their observance by the establishment of a federative system calculated upon the situation of the different states of Europe.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty of concert signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In witness whereof, we the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 11th April (30th March) 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSSILZOFF.

Eighth separate Article.

It being possible that the bias which the French government tries to give to the counsels of the different states of Europe, may determine one or other of those states to throw obstacles in the way of the attainment of the salutary effects which are the object of the present concert, and even to have recourse to hostile measures against one of the high contracting parties, in spite of their endeavours to establish an equitable and permanent order of things in Europe, his Britannic majesty and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias agree to make common cause against every power which, by the employment of its forces, or by too intimate an union with France, may pretend to raise essential obstacles to the development of those measures which the high contracting parties may have to take, in order to attain the object proposed by the present concert.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty of concert signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In witness whereof, we the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 11th April (30th March) 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSSILZOFF.

Eleventh separate Article.

The high contracting parties, acknowledging the necessity of supporting the propositions of peace, which it is their intention to make to Bonaparte, by energetic demonstrations, have resolved to invite his imperial and royal apostolic majesty to put his armies in a state of readiness for action without delay, by completing their numbers, and by concentrating them in the neighbourhood of the borders of France.---His Britannic majesty, considering the extraordinary expenses which this measure will render necessary, promises and engages to furnish to his imperial and royal majesty, immediately after his accession to the present concert, the sum of 1,000,000*l.* sterling for *premiere mise en campagne*, which the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland will not reclaim, in case the negotiations for peace should be crowned with success, provided that, in a contrary event, Austria would take the field immediately.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in

the treaty of concert signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In witness whereof, we the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 11th April (30th March) 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSSILZOFF.

Separate and secret Article.

Although the high contracting parties have agreed by the first separate article of the treaty of concert, established this day between them, that Austria and Sweden shall not partake of the advantages of the said concert, but in the event of their bringing their forces into action against France four months after its signature, by virtue of their engagements with his majesty the emperor of all the Russias; yet his Britannic majesty, considering the advantage to the future security of Europe which results from an union similar to that formed by his majesty the emperor of all the Russias with their majesties the emperor of Germany and the king of Sweden, for the purpose of opposing the further enroachments of Bonaparte, promises to fulfil the stipulations of the present concert, in the same degree towards either of those powers, if, in the course of the year 1805, both or one of them should bring their forces into action against France, in virtue of their engagements with his majesty the emperor of all the Russias.

This separate and secret article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty of concert signed

ed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In witness whereof, we the undersigned, in virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate and secret article, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at St Petersburg, the 11th April (30th March) 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSSILZOFF.

Additional Article.

His majesty the emperor of all the Russias having, in pursuance of his sincere desire to insure success to the enterprise concerted against France, determined, in case the circumstances should require it, to augment the forces which he has promised to bring into action to 180,000 men, his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland promises and engages to pay, in that case, to his imperial majesty of all the Russias, for the troops which he may thus add to 115,000 already agreed upon, a subsidy and a *premiere mise en campagne*, at the same rate as is agreed by the fifth separate article of the treaty of concert established between his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, 30th March (11th April) 1805.

This additional article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the aforementioned concert, and shall be ratified by the two high contracting powers; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the space of ten weeks, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, we the undersigned plenipotentiaries have sign-

ed the same, and have affixed to it the seals of their arms.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 10th May (28th April) 1805.

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

(L.S.) NICOLAS DE NOVOSSILZOFF.

Additional Article of the treaty of concert signed at St. Petersburg, the 11th April, 1805.

His majesty the emperor of all the Russias, purposing to concert measures with the court of Vienna, by which considerable Russian armies may be approximated to the frontiers of France, by crossing the Austrian and Prussian territories, while it is declared that the objects of these movements is to obtain securities for the continent, promises and engages to his Britannic majesty, in his own name and in that of his allies, that, should even circumstances require, that at the moment when the Russian troops began their march, they should declare that this movement was in no way connected with an existing concert with his Britannic majesty, but that the powers of the continent reclaim the fulfilment by France of her immediate engagements with them, yet as soon as the war shall have broken out, they will no longer pursue a particular object, but that which has been determined by the concert of the 30th March (April 11) with all the clauses incorporated with it.

In return for this assurance, his Britannic majesty promises and engages, in the first place, to fulfil towards the emperor of all the Russias the stipulations of the above-mentioned concert, in all their parts, as soon as the war shall have broken out between Russia and France, and especially to furnish for the Russian troops the subsidies agreed upon, payable from the

day on which they shall have quitted the frontiers of the empire, and moreover the three months stipulated subsidy under the name of *premiere mise en campagne*; with this condition nevertheless, that however long may be the term between the epoch of the departure of the Russian troops from their frontiers, and that of the commencement of hostilities, his Britannic majesty shall not be bound to pay to Russia for that interval more than six months subsidy at the most, the *premiere mise en campagne* being therein comprised.

In the second place, to fulfil, with regard to Austria, all the stipulations of the above-mentioned concert, and especially all that relates to the subsidies, as soon as the ambassador of his imperial and royal majesty shall have signed the act of accession of his court: and lastly, in the third place, to pay in the like manner to the other allies of Russia, who shall assist in this enterprise (except in case of special arrangements), the subsidies which have been allotted for them by the above-mentioned concert, and on the conditions therein specified.

This additional article shall have the same force and validity, as if it were inserted word for word in the above-mentioned concert, and shall be ratified by the two high contracting parties, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Petersburg, in the space of six weeks, or sooner if possible.

In faith of which, the undersigned plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

Done at St. Petersburg the 12th July (24th July) 1805.

(Signed)

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

Preliminary declaration of count Stadion to Lord Granville Leveson Gower, dated at St. Petersburg 28th July (August 9) 1805.

The undersigned ambassador-extraordinary and plenipotentiary of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, by order of his august sovereign, after having invited his excellency the ambassador of Great Britain, to join with him in the preliminary declarations which he has exchanged this day with his excellency the prince of Czartoryski, has moreover declared as follows:

His imperial and royal apostolic majesty, in acceding to the treaty concluded on the 30th March (11th April) 1805, and subsequently ratified by the courts of London and St. Petersburg, under the reservations, modifications, and demands, as announced in the above-mentioned preliminary declarations, limits the pecuniary succours, which he expects from his majesty the king of Great Britain for the current year, 1805, to 3,000,000*l.* sterling, of which sum one million and a half is to be considered as *premiere mise en campagne*, and, as such, is to be furnished with as little delay as possible; and the other million and a half as subsidies, to be paid in equal monthly payments, until the last day of the year. These subsidies, as well as one million of the sum appointed for *premiere mise en campagne*, are to be furnished to his imperial majesty, and shall remain in his possession even though the vigorous demonstrations in which his forces are actually employed should not terminate in hostilities, but should lead by the way of negotiation to the re-establishment of peace. Moreover, as these armed demonstrations afford the greatest and most efficacious aid

aid for the promotion of the object of the concert, to which his imperial and royal apostolic majesty has acceded, he expects that, as long as they shall continue, the subsidy shall likewise continue to be paid, in the same manner as if his armies were employed in actual war; and that for the year 1806, and the subsequent years, in consideration of the great number of troops which he is opposing to the common enemy, the subsidy shall be increased to the sum of four millions sterling, payable in the same manner as is stated above, until the return of the regiments into the hereditary dominions.

His excellency the ambassador of Great Britain having declared that the instructions and precise orders of his court precluded him from acceding without restriction to the above-mentioned demands, and having engaged, by a preliminary act exchanged against the present, in the name of his Britannic majesty, to stipulations which differ from them considerably, as well with regard to the sum, as to the terms of the propositions made in the name of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty.

The undersigned accepts this act, given in by the ambassador of England: but he declares at the same time, that he does not consider the sums stipulated therein as sufficient, and that he expressly reserves for his court the power of reclaiming to this effect, and of effectuating the fulfilment of its demands.

In transmitting this preliminary declaration, which is to be in the place, and have the validity, of the most solemn treaty, to his excellency the ambassador of his majesty the king of Great Britain, he is authorised to declare to him at the

same time, that he is ready to proceed immediately, on these same bases, to the conclusion of the formal act of accession of Austria to the concert of the 30th March (11th April.)

These presents shall be ratified by the respective courts in as short a time as possible.

In faith of which, the undersigned, by virtue of the full powers of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, has signed the present preliminary declaration, and has affixed thereto the seal of his arms.

Done at St. Petersburg the 28th of July (9th August) 1805.

(L. s.) J. PHILIPPE,
Compe de Stadion.

Declaration of count Stadion to prince Czartoryski, dated St. Petersburg, 28th July (9th August) 1805.

The undersigned ambassador-extraordinary and plenipotentiary of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, being especially authorised by the emperor his august master, declares, in answer to the declaration which has been delivered to him by his excellency the prince Czartoryski, of this day's date, as follows:

I. His imperial and royal majesty, in accepting the different articles announced in this declaration, accedes to the concert concluded between the courts of St. Petersburg and London the 30th March (11th April) of this year, as well as to the last plan, which the Russian ministry has caused to be presented at Vienna. His majesty promises to fulfil the engagements thereof, with the exception of the modifications, clauses, and demands included in the different official pieces to which his imperial

(M 3) majesty

majesty of Russia has given his consent in the preliminary declaration, which will be taken as the basis of the concert of measures which Austria and Russia are to employ for the attainment of their object.

II. His imperial and royal majesty engages to execute without delay the military arrangement agreed upon at Vienna the 16th of July, as well for the armed demonstration which is to facilitate the negotiation, as for the operations against the enemy which may ensue; in the confidence and certain expectation that the present preliminary agreement shall be unexceptionably and literally fulfilled, and that the definitive agreement shall be concluded without delay, and on the same basis between the three powers.

III. His imperial and royal majesty engages, as soon as the whole or a part of the Russian troops shall have passed their frontiers, not to treat for peace but on the basis which his majesty has himself acknowledged to be indispensable for the safety of Europe; and if hostilities shall take place, to make neither a peace nor truce, but with the consent of the allies, according to the stipulations of the concert of the 30th March (11th April), of this year.

The undersigned, in delivering the present preliminary declaration, which is to be in the place and to have the validity of the most solemn act, to his excellency the prince Czartoryski, is authorised to announce to him at the same time, that he is ready to proceed immediately to the conclusion of the formal act of accession of the court of Vienna to the concert of the 30th March (11th April.)

The present declaration, and that

delivered to the undersigned by his excellency the prince Czartoryski, shall be ratified by the respective sovereigns in the least possible time, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at St. Petersburg.

In faith of which, the undersigned ambassador-extraordinary and plenipotentiary of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, has signed the present declaration, has caused to be affixed thereto the seal of his arms, and has exchanged it against the declaration signed this day by his excellency prince Czartoryski, joint minister for foreign affairs of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 9th August (28th July) 1805.

(Signed) J. PHILIPPE.

Count de Stadion.

Copy of the declaration delivered by prince Czartoryski to the ambassador count de Stadion, on the 28th July (9th August) 1805.

The undersigned minister for foreign affairs, being authorised to that effect by his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, declares to his excellency the ambassador count de Stadion as follows:

I. The several observations and proposals announced by the court of Vienna, in the preliminary declaration delivered by the vice-chancellor of the court and state, count de Cobenzel, to the ambassador count de Razoumosky, on the 7th of July, are assumed by his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, to serve as a basis for the concert of measures between the court of Russia and those of Vienna and of London. In like manner the modifications proposed therein by his imperial and royal majesty for the regulation of the affairs of the

the continent, are also adopted, in case of there being reason to hope that war may be avoided by means of negotiation.

II. His majesty the emperor of all the Russias confirms the military arrangements detailed in the protocol of conferences held between the general baron de Wintzinger on one side, and the prince de Schwarzenberg, and general Mack on the other, and which was signed the 16th of July. And his imperial majesty engages strictly to fulfil the whole of the measures therein arranged.

III. His majesty the emperor of all the Russias engages, moreover, to endeavour to prevail on his Britannic majesty to consent to the modifications and demands contained in the paper entitled, "Remarks on some particular objects of the convention signed between the courts of Petersburg and London the 30th of March (11th of April) of this year."

IV. His majesty the emperor of all the Russias promises to use his best endeavours to engage his Britannic majesty to grant the total amount of the subsidiary demands made by the court of Vienna; with this condition nevertheless, that in case his imperial majesty, notwithstanding all his exertions, should fail in the attempt, this circumstance shall occasion no essential change in the measures concerted between Russia and Austria.

V. His majesty the emperor of all the Russias engages, as soon as the whole or part of the Russian troops shall have passed their frontiers, not to treat for peace but upon those bases which his imperial majesty has himself acknowledged to be indispensable for the safety of Europe; and when the war shall have broken out, to make neither

peace nor a truce without the consent of the allies, according to the stipulations of the concert of the 30th March (11th April) of this year.

The undersigned, in delivering this preliminary declaration, which is to be in the place and have the validity of the most solemn act, to the ambassador of Austria, is authorised to announce to him at the same time, that she is ready to proceed immediately on these to the conclusion of the formal act of accession of the court of Vienna to the concert of the 30th March (11th April).

The present declaration, and that delivered in return by the ambassador count de Stadion, shall be ratified by the respective sovereigns in the shortest possible term, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Petersburg.

In faith of which, the undersigned joint-minister for foreign affairs has signed the present declaration, has caused the seal of his arms to be affixed thereto, and has exchanged it against the declaration signed this day by his excellency the count de Stadion.

Done at St. Petersburg the 28th July (9th Aug.) 1805.

(Signed)

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

Declaration of prince Czartoryski to lord G. L. Gower, dated St. Petersburg, 28th July (9th Aug.) 1805.

The undersigned joint-minister for foreign affairs, being authorised to that effect by his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, declares to his excellency the ambassador, lord Granville Leveson Gower, as follows:—

I. The undersigned has this day exchanged with his excellency the ambassador of Austria the declarations of which copies are hereto annexed.

II. His majesty the emperor of all the Russias expects that the ambassador of England will agree in the name of his court without reserve to their contents: and that if he do not consider himself sufficiently authorised thereto, he will express in a formal declaration the several points to which he can immediately assent.

III. The undersigned is authorised to exchange this declaration against that which shall be delivered to him by his excellency lord Granville Leveson Gower.

The present declaration, and that delivered in return by the ambassador of England, which are to be in the place and to have the validity of the most solemn act, shall be ratified by the respective sovereigns, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Petersburg in the shortest possible term.

In faith of which, the undersigned joint-minister for foreign affairs has signed the present declaration, has caused to be affixed to it the seal of his arms, and has exchanged it against the declaration signed this day by his excellency the ambassador of England.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 28th of July 1805.

(L.S.) ADAM PRINCE CZARTORYSKI

Declaration, signed by his majesty's ambassador at St. Petersburg, and delivered to prince Czartoryski and to count de Stadion, 9th August 1805.

The undersigned ambassador-extraordinary and plenipotentiary of

his Britannic majesty, having been invited by his excellency the prince Czartoryski joint-minister for foreign affairs, and the count de Stadion ambassador-extraordinary and plenipotentiary of his imperial royal apostolic majesty, to accede to the declarations reciprocally exchanged between the two imperial courts on this day, the 9th of August, in virtue of his full powers declares as follows:

The several observations and proposals expressed by the court of Vienna in the preliminary declaration delivered by the vice chancellor of the court and state, the count de Cobenzel, to the ambassador count Razoumosky, on the 7th of July, and in the *Memoire Raisonné* of the 21st of July, are assumed by his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, &c. &c. to serve as a basis for the concert of measures between the three courts of London, Vienna, and Petersburg, and the modifications proposed therein, for the regulation of the affairs of the continent, are in like manner adopted, in case there should be reason to hope that war may be avoided by the means of negotiation.

The British ambassador, while he declares that his positive instructions preclude him from acceding to the pecuniary demands of the court of Vienna, engages, in the name of his sovereign, that the monthly subsidies agreed to by the concert of the 30th March (11th April) shall be payable from the 1st of October 1805: he engages likewise to advance, with the least possible delay, the equivalent of five months' subsidies, under the head of *premiere mise en campagne*, with this express condition, that his Britannic majesty may reclaim whatever payments shall have been made in

in favour of his imperial and royal majesty, beyond the million stipulated by the eleventh additional article of the above-mentioned treaty, whether as *premiere mise en campagne*, or as current subsidy, in case that the negotiations which are about to be set on foot with the French government do not terminate in war.

He declares, moreover, that if the said negotiations shall not be brought to a conclusion before the 31st day of December 1805, the expiration of the first three months shall be the term of the payments which are to be continued monthly, until the commencement of hostilities.

His imperial and royal majesty having engaged to embody an armed force of not less than 320,000 men, the undersigned consents, that the advances to be made, under the head of *premiere mise en campagne*, shall be paid according to this calculation, with this condition nevertheless, that if, contrary to all expectation, the Austrian armies do not amount to the force above specified, his Britannic majesty may deduct from this payment a sum proportionate to the numbers that are wanting.

The British ambassador cannot consent to the modifications and demands contained in the paper entitled "Remarks on some particular Objects of the Convention, signed between the courts of Petersburg and of London, the 30th March (11th April)" of this year; as he has hitherto received no instructions from his court, which authorise him to accede to such demands.

The British ambassador accepts the accession of his majesty the emperor and king, under the conditions specified in the preliminary

declarations exchanged this day between the plenipotentiaries of their imperial and royal majesties, with this formal reservation, that this acceptation shall be considered as valid, nor the above-mentioned engagements obligatory, unless the court of Vienna shall on their side conform themselves to the whole of the stipulations of the said act.

The undersigned, in delivering to his excellency prince Czartoryski and count de Stadion the present preliminary declaration, which is to be in the place and have the validity of the most solemn treaty, is authorised to announce to him at the same time, that he is ready to proceed immediately on these bases, to the conclusion of the formal act of accession of the court of Vienna to the concert of the 30th March---11th April.

These presents shall be ratified by the respective courts in the shortest possible term.

In witness whereof the undersigned, by virtue of the full powers of his Britannic majesty, has signed the present preliminary declaration, and affixed thereto the seal of his arms.

Done at St. Petersburg the 28th July (9th August.)

(L.S.) GRANVILLE LEV. GOWER.

Treaty between his majesty and the king of Sweden, signed at Becskascog, 3d October 1805.

In the name of The Most Holy and Undivided Trinity!

His majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the king of Sweden, in pursuance of the ties of friendship and good understanding by which they are at present so happily united, desirous of establishing

establishing a more direct communication upon every thing which relates to the present war, which the French government has excited against several powers, by measures equally unjust and offensive, and by conducting itself upon principles incompatible with the security and tranquillity of every independent state; their said majesties have judged proper to concert together upon the means of opposing a sufficient barrier to the misfortunes which menace the whole of Europe. In consequence they have chosen and named for their plenipotentiaries, videlicet, his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the honourable Henry Pierrepont his envoy-extraordinary and minister-plenipotentiary to his Swedish majesty; and his majesty the king of Sweden, the sieur Christopher baron de Toll, a lord of the kingdom of Sweden, governor-general of the duchy of Scania, general of cavalry in his armies, chief of the regiment of Carbineers of Scania, knight and commander of his orders, and knight of all the Russian orders; who, after having communicated their respective full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I. There shall be a perfect understanding, friendship, and alliance between his Britannic majesty and his majesty the king of Sweden.

Art. II. The convention concluded between their said majesties on the 31st of August last, is hereby renewed, and shall remain in full force and validity, independent of the new stipulations contained in the present treaty.

Art. III. His majesty the king of Sweden, desirous of co-operating with effect towards the success of the general plan, engages to furnish

a corps of troops destined to act against the common enemy, in concert with the allies, and especially with the troops of his imperial majesty of all the Russias, which shall be landed in Pomerania. The number of Swedish troops employed for this purpose shall be fixed in every case at twelve thousand men.

Art. IV. His Britannic majesty, in order to facilitate to his Swedish majesty the means of acting with vigour, and conformably to the sentiments of zeal and interest by which he is animated for the common cause, engages to furnish him an annual subsidy at the rate of 12*l*. 10*s*. sterling for every man; which subsidy shall be paid in equal proportions at the end of each month.

Art. V. His Britannic majesty moreover engages, as a compensation for the expenses of assembling, equipping, and conveying the said troops, to furnish, under the head of putting them in motion, a sum equal to five months subsidy, to be calculated according to the scale laid down in the preceding article, and payable immediately after the ratification of the present treaty.

Art. VI. The two high contracting parties engage not to lay down their arms, nor to conclude peace with the common enemy, but by mutual consent; but, on the contrary, to remain firmly and inseparably united, as long as the war lasts, and until the conclusion of a general pacification.

Art. VII. In pursuance of the engagements agreed upon between the two high contracting parties, by virtue of the preceding article, not to lay down their arms but by common consent, his Britannic majesty engages to continue the subsidies stipulated by the present treaty, until the end of the war.

Art. VIII.

Art. VIII. His Britannic majesty, in order as well to cover the expenses of the return of the Swedish army, as of all other objects connected therewith, engages to continue the subsidies stipulated by the present treaty, until three months after the peace.

Art. IX. His Britannic majesty, impressed with the importance of putting the fortress of Stralsund in the best possible state of defence, engages to place, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, at the disposal of his Swedish majesty, the additional sum of 50,000*l.* sterling for that purpose.

Art. X. The present treaty shall be ratified by the two high contracting parties, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged in six weeks, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, we, the undersigned, in virtue of our powers, have signed the present treaty, and have thereunto affixed the seals of our arms.

Done at Beckascog, the 3d October, 1805.

(was signed)

(L. S.) HENRY PIERREPOINT.

(L. S.) J. C. BARON DE TOLL.

TREATIES, &c.

Presented by his majesty's command to both houses of parliament, January 28th, 1806.

Preliminary and secret convention between his majesty and the king of Sweden, signed at Stockholm, 3d December, 1805.

His majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the king of Sweden, being animated with a mutual desire to strengthen and draw closer the ties of friendship and harmony which so hap-

pily exist between the two courts, having thought proper, with this view, to regulate, by a preliminary and secret convention, certain points of their natural interests relative to the present situation of affairs; their said majesties have named for that purpose, his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the sieur Henry Pierrepoint his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary; and his majesty the king of Sweden, the sieur Frederic d'Ehrenheim, president of his chancery and commander of his order of the polar star, who, after having reciprocally communicated their full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:—

Art. I. His Britannic majesty, in order to enable his Swedish majesty more effectually to provide for the defence of Stralsund against any attack whatever on the part of the French, engages to pay, once for all, the sum of sixty thousand pounds sterling, which is to be appropriated solely to that purpose; this sum shall be remitted in three payments, at the interval of a month between each, the first of which is to become due upon the ratifications on this convention being exchanged.

Art. II. His majesty the king of Sweden engages, so long as the war between Sweden and France continues, or during the space of eighteen months for the least, to permit the establishment of a *depôt* in Swedish Pomerania, either at Stralsund, or in the island of Rugen, or in both those places, for the corps of Hanoverians which his Britannic majesty shall be desirous of raising there.

Art. III. The officers appointed to raise the said levies, shall be allowed to clothe, arm, and victual them; to form them into battalions

lions, and to remove them out of Swedish Pomerania into such places, and in such proportions, as his Britanic majesty shall judge proper.

Art. IV. The stipulations of the two preceding articles being founded on the principle that Sweden is actually declared a belligerent party, it is understood that the said articles II. and III. are to be suspended in their operation until his Swedish majesty shall find himself, by the return of the open season, in a situation to send additional reinforcements into Pomerania, inasmuch that no measure relative to these dispositions can be adopted before that time.

Art. V. His majesty the king of Sweden engages moreover to grant to the subjects of his Britannic majesty, during the continuation of the war between Great Britain and France, the right of an *entrepôt* at Stralsund, for all the articles of the growth, produce, and merchandise, as well of Great Britain as of her colonies, shipped in British or Swedish vessels. All such articles intended for re-exportation, whether by sea or land, shall only pay a duty of three quarters per cent. *ad valorem*; and those for consumption such duties only as are actually established at the port of Stralsund with respect to the most favoured nations. A more detailed arrangement of this branch of commerce, as likewise of other points, whereby the commercial interests of the two nations might be more closely connected, is to be reserved for a particular act.

Art. VI. His majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the king of Sweden, mutually engage to ratify the present act, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged in the space of

six weeks, or sooner, if possible, to be computed from the day of its signature.

In witness whereof, we the undersigned, furnished with the full powers of our respective sovereigns, have signed the present convention, and have thereunto affixed the seals of our arms.

Done at Stockholm this 3d December 1804.

(was signed)

(L. S.) HENRY PIERREPOINT.

(L. S.) F. D'EHRNHEIM.

Convention between his majesty and the king of Sweden, signed at Helsingborg, the 31st August 1805.

Art. I. The preliminary and secret convention concluded between the sovereigns on the 3d December 1804, is renewed, and shall continue in full force and validity during the period hereinafter specified in Art. VII.

Art. II. His majesty the king of Great Britain, conceiving that the object stated in the preamble cannot be more completely attained with respect to Swedish Pomerania, than by maintaining the fortress of Stralsund in a respectable state of defence, in order to preserve a rallying point and place of retreat for the forces of the allied powers, and especially for the troops of the emperor of all the Russias, in case his imperial majesty should be desirous of landing his forces at that place in order to co-operate in the general plan, engages to pay monthly the sum of one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling, for every thousand men of regular troops with which his Swedish majesty shall reinforce the usual garrison of the city of Stralsund.

Art. III. A garrison of eight thousand

thousand men in the whole, being deemed sufficient for the defence of this place, and the usual garrison, including the burgher militia, amounting to upwards of four thousand; it is understood that the reinforcement spoken of in the preceding article shall not exceed four thousand men of regular troops, so that the subsidies to be furnished by his majesty the king of Great Britain will amount to the sum of seven thousand two hundred pounds sterling per month.

Art. IV. The payment of the above-mentioned subsidies shall be made before the end of every month, and shall be computed from the first day of July last, for the Swedish troops, amounting to fifteen hundred men, actually in Stralsund, and for the reinforcements which may arrive there, from the day of their landing.

Art. V. The two high contracting parties not having been able to agree upon the expenses of transports, his majesty the king of Sweden, desirous of affording a convincing proof of his wish to contribute to the success of the common cause, engages to be at the sole charge of conveying to Pomerania the troops which are to be sent there in pursuance of the present convention, and not to require any thing for their return.

Art. VI. His majesty the emperor of all the Russias having signified his desire to land a part of his troops in Pomerania, his Swedish majesty engages, in consequence of the present convention, to afford every facility in his power to such disembarkation, and moreover to enter into particular stipulations with his imperial majesty on that head.

Art. VII. As the conditions of the obligations contained in articles

II. and III. of the preliminary and secret convention, limit the enjoyment of the privileges therein granted to the king of Great Britain to the duration of the war between Sweden and France, or to the period of eighteen months for the least, and his Britannic majesty not having availed himself of the stipulations of the above-mentioned articles, his majesty the king of Sweden engages to extend them as long as the subsidies fixed by the present convention shall be discharged by Great Britain, and whilst that power shall continue the war against France, in conjunction with Russia.

Art. VIII. The ratifications of the present convention shall be exchanged at Stockholm within six weeks, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof we the undersigned, in virtue of our powers, have signed the present convention, and have affixed thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at Helsingborg the 31st of August 1805.

(Signed)

(L. S.) HENRY PIERREPOINT.

(L. S.) J. C. BARON DE TOLL.

Act of Guarantee by the emperor of Russia of the convention signed at Helsingborg on the 3d of December 1804.

A convention having been concluded this day, by the intervention of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, between his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and his majesty the king of Sweden, to provide for the reinforcement of the garrison of Stralsund, in pursuance of the secret and preliminary convention of the 3d of December 1804; the two high contracting

tracting parties have amicably requested his imperial majesty to consent to guarantee the execution of so desirable an object. His majesty the emperor of all the Russias has accordingly willingly agreed to a measure which tends solely to so salutary an end; and having thereunto furnished us with his full powers, we, the undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his imperial majesty, declare and assure by this present act, in virtue of our full powers, that his majesty the emperor of all the Russias guarantees the convention which has been signed this day between his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and his majesty the king of Sweden, in all its extent, as well with the two separate articles which are annexed to it, and which form part of the same, as of all the other conditions, clauses, and stipulations which are contained therein, in the best possible form; and that his imperial majesty will cause to be forwarded and delivered the particular ratifications of this act of guarantee.

In faith of which, we have signed the present act, and have caused the seal of our arms to be thereto affixed, and have exchanged it against the acts of acceptance; as shall be likewise exchanged the ratifications of the present act against the ratifications of the said acts of acceptance, in the space of six weeks, or sooner if possible.

Done at Helsingborg this 31st day of August 1805.

(L. S.) D. ALOPEUS.

[This is simply the acceptance by his majesty of the Russian guar-

antee to the treaty of Helsingborg, of 31st August, 1805.]

First separate article of the convention of Helsingborg, signed 31st August, 1805.

His majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the king of Sweden, having agreed by the present separate and additional article, that the subsidies fixed by the 2d and 3d articles of the convention signed this day, shall continue to be paid by Great Britain, during the continuance of the war between that power and France, conjointly with Russia, or as long as the state of affairs and the operations of the allies shall require that the fortress of Stralsund be kept in a respectable state of defence, unless the two high contracting parties shall mutually consent to the cessation of such subsidies. In both cases, if the term of their payment should happen, when the sea is innavigable, his Britannic majesty engages, nevertheless, to continue their payment, according to the same rate as heretofore, till the day of the return of the Swedish troops into Pomerania, which shall take place the earliest opportunity.

Second separate article of the convention of Helsingborg, signed the 31st of August 1805.

The Hanoverian troops, which (in pursuance of the stipulations of the second and third articles of the secret and preliminary convention of the 3d of December 1804, renewed by the seventh article of the present convention) may be hereafter assembled in Swedish Pomerania, shall continue, as long as they remain in that province, under the supreme orders of the commander in chief of the united forces,

forces, without any violation of the rights established in the three abovementioned articles.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity, as if it were inserted word for word in the convention signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.

In faith of which, we the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present separate article, and have caused the seal of our arms to be thereto affixed.

Done at Helsingborg, this 31st day of August 1805.

(Signed)

(L. S.) HENRY PIERREPOINT.

(L. S.) J. C. BARON DE TOLL.

PAPERS RELATIVE TO THE NEGOTIATION.

Laid before both houses of parliament, by his majesty's command.

TRANSLATION.

Extract from a letter from M. Talleyrand to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, March 5, 1806.—Received March 19.

Paris, March 5, 1806.

It may be agreeable to you to receive news from this country.

I send you the emperor's speech to the legislative body. You will therein see that our wishes are still for peace. I do not ask what is the prevailing inclination with you; but if the advantages of peace are duly appreciated, you know upon what basis it may be discussed:

TRANSLATION.

Extract from a speech delivered by the chief of the French government to the legislative body on the 2d of March, 1806.

I desire peace with England. On my part, I shall never delay it for a moment. I shall always be

ready to conclude it, taking for its basis the stipulations of the treaty of Amiens.

No. 12.

Communication made by the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. Secretary Fox, dated June 13, 1806.

A few days after my arrival at Paris from the *dépôt* at Verdun, Mons. Talleyrand desired me to call upon him; having done so, he told me that the French government had been looking out for some means by which a secret and confidential communication might be made, explanatory of the sentiments and views of France, as well as the outlines of the terms on which peace might be restored between the two countries.

Having mentioned the extreme desire of making this communication in such a manner that no publicity might in any case ensue, should the object of it not be obtained, Monsieur Talleyrand proceeded to state, in a long argument, which it is useless to repeat, as it forms the substance of several of the French government's dispatches, the reasons which prevent their treating for a general peace jointly with Russia.

He said, that in a dispatch sent some weeks before to Mr. Fox, he had been ordered to name Lisle rather than Amiens for the negotiation of a definitive treaty, in order to remove all former discussions, and to facilitate to England the possession of Malta.

I then took the liberty of interrupting M. Talleyrand, to say that however flattering the confidence he was ordered to place in me might be, yet that, feeling as I did, the interests, and above all the honour of my country, it was impossible for me to be the bearer of a communication

munication having peace for its object, against which I should feel obliged to vote in parliament; and viewing the restoration of Hanover in this light, I could not receive any further communication till I had explicit declaration with regard to his majesty's German dominions.

M. Talleyrand then broke off the conversation, desiring me to return the third day after. At the expiration of this time I waited upon him again, when he informed me that, considering the extreme stress which appeared to be laid upon this point, Hanover should make no difficulty.

Authorised by the concession of that in which the honour of the king and that of the nation appeared most interested, I inquired whether the possession of Sicily would be demanded, it having been so said, "*Vous l'avez, nous ne vous la demandons pas; si vous la possédions elle pourroit augmenter de beaucoup les difficultés**." Considering this to be very positive both from the words and manner of delivering them, I conceived it improper to make further questions. "*Nous ne vous demandons rien†*" amounting to an admission of *uti possidetis* as applicable to his majesty's conquests.

M. Talleyrand mentioned strongly the recognition of the emperor and the different branches of his family as absolutely expected. On this I took occasion to state the solidity which the recognition of

Great Britain would give to their establishment, and inquired whether the French government would guarantee the integrity of the Ottoman empire. The answer was yes, but it must be soon. "*Beaucoup se prepare mais rien n'est fait ‡*," —Reverting to the first conversation, I desired to know whether a middle term might not be found at the same time to obtain the object desired by the French government, and that desired by Great Britain, of not treating in a manner unconnected with Russia. To this he answered that they were entirely ready to give every facility to the arrangement of the respective interests of the two powers, or that a British minister should, being authorised by the emperor Alexander, stipulate for both.

The last words of M. Talleyrand were, "*Les sentiments de la France sont entièrement changes; l'aigreur qui caracterisoit le commencement de cette guerre n'existe plus, et ce que nous desirons le plus c'est de pouvoir vivre en bonne intelligence avec une aussi grande puissance que la Grande Bretagne||*."

(Signed)

YARMOUTH.

No. 14.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, June 19, 1806.—Received June 21st.

Paris, June 19, 1806.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you

* You are in possession of it, we do not ask it of you; if we possessed it, it might very much augment our difficulties.

† We ask nothing from you.

‡ A great deal is in preparation, but nothing is yet done.

|| The sentiments entertained in France are entirely different from what they were. The asperity which characterized the commencement of this war, no longer exists; and what we most desire is, to live in harmony with so great a power as Great Britain.

that, in obedience to your orders, I made all the haste in my power to arrive at Paris as soon as possible; calm at sea however prevented my getting here till the afternoon of the 16th.

I immediately waited upon M. Talleyrand to deliver to him the dispatches you entrusted to my care, and requested to put off any conversation on the subject of my journey till next day. I intend employing this interval to endeavour to see M. d'Oubril, if at Paris, and communicate with him previously to the seeing again M. Talleyrand, or at any rate to obtain some knowledge of his motions.

Previous, however, to my leaving M. Talleyrand, he expressed to me that although the desire of peace was equally sincere now as it was when I quitted Paris, yet that some changes had taken place which he had hinted at the possibility of when I last saw him, alluding to the readiness of Russia to treat separately; and further mentioned that the emperor had received reports from his brother and the general officers under his orders, stating that Naples could not be held out without Sicily, and the probability they saw of gaining possession of that island. I answered him, that, being ordered to require the restoration of Naples to the king of Sicily as a necessary article of peace, there would be no question of their separation.

I conceive Sicily to be the great difficulty, though perhaps, were there no other, it might be got over. M. Talleyrand often and seriously stated the absolute determination of the emperor not to consent to

our demands of Naples, Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, or to alienate any part of his Italian states to form a provision for the king of Sardinia.

Against cessions in the West Indies or elsewhere I solemnly protested; nor do I think they care sufficiently about these objects to give any sufficient continental equivalent for them.

M. Talleyrand often repeated that the emperor had inquired whether I had any powers, adding, "*qu' en politique on ne peut parler la même langue, si on n'y est également autorisé**;" and as frequently said that they considered that Hanover for the honour of the crown, Malta for the honour of the navy, and the Cape of Good Hope for the honour of the British commerce, to be sufficient inducements to induce his majesty's ministers to make peace.

P. S. On Tuesday 16th June I waited upon M. Talleyrand, and began the conversation by alluding to the changes he had hinted at the night before, and desired leave to repeat the substance of what had passed at my former interviews with him, and which I had by his desire communicated. He agreed that the statement was accurate.

No. 15.

Extract of a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, June 26, 1806.

Downing-street, June 26, 1806.

My lord,—I had the honour on Saturday evening to receive your lordship's letters of the 19th, and should sooner have answered them,

* "That in politics it is impossible to hold the same language, unless both parties are equally authorized."

if I had not been for these three days past totally incapable of attending to business.

I am very happy to learn that M. Talleyrand acknowledges your accounts of former conversations to be accurately correct; but when he does acknowledge this, I have no conception on what ground he can recede from what he said so distinctly to your lordship before, upon the subject of Sicily: "*Vous l'avez, nous ne vous demandons rien*†," are the words that made the more impression on me, because those contained in the latter clause of the sentence had been used by his excellency in one of his letters to me. It was on the faith of the *uti possidetis* being to be strictly observed as the basis, and particularly Sicily, on which satisfaction had been given to your lordship, that his majesty was induced to authorise your lordship to hold further conferences with M. Talleyrand. Any tergiversation or cavil therefore on that article, would be a breach of the principle of the proposed basis in its most essential part. To say that Hanover is an exception to the principle is in vain, in as much as Hanover is to be yielded expressly in honour of the crown; while, on the other hand, the recognitions proposed with regard to the French empire and its dependants, are not only in honour of the crown of France, but tend substantially to establish the solidity of her power. With regard to the complaint of the want of full powers; to avoid all pretence of cavil on that account, I am commanded by his majesty to transmit to you the instrument accompanying this letter. But your lordship

should fairly state to M. Talleyrand, that you are not authorised to make any use of them formally until M. Talleyrand returns to his former ground with respect to Sicily. Your lordship is directed further, to acquaint that minister, that, if Russia offers to treat separately, it is only in the way in which we do; that is to say, separately in form, but in substance, in concert with each other. And here you will recollect that this very circumstance was canvassed in your former conversations with M. Talleyrand, when that minister expressed himself clearly that there would be no objection on the part of France to such preconcert.

The result of what I have stated to your lordship is this: 1st, That Sicily is a *sine qua non*; on which subject, if the French minister recedes from his former answer, it is vain that any further discussion should take place. It is clearly within his first opinion delivered to your lordship: It is clearly within his last description of places which are reciprocally possessed by two countries, and cannot in all probability be recovered by war.

If, according to the hope conceived by your lordship, this matter should be arranged, you may open your full powers: stating at the same time, the determination of this court not to come to any final agreement without the consent of Russia. You will of course again mention the questions of Naples and Istria. If we could attain either of them it would be well; but if we cannot, your lordship will not state these points as conclusive reasons against agreeing on preliminary articles, provided

* You are in possession of it; we ask nothing from you.

such articles be considered as provisional, and subject to the approbation of Russia.

With regard to the mode of provisional agreement, two suggest themselves to my mind: the one to send the agreement we shall have entered into, either to Petersburg, or to some authorised agent of the emperor Alexander, at Vienna, Paris, or elsewhere, for his approbation; the other, to copy the precedent adopted by lord Lansdowne and doctor Franklin in the year 1782. At that time a provisional treaty was signed by the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain and the United States of America, with the reservation, that the said treaty should not have effect till a peace should be agreed upon between France and England. Of these two modes I should prefer the latter.

It does not appear that there has been any conversation between your lordship and M. Talleyrand on a point which was mentioned to you, and which appears to be of considerable importance; I mean the future admission of Russia and Sweden to become parties in a definitive treaty. I do not say that this is a point that must be determined upon previous to your settling the basis proposed; but it is one which should not be lost sight of, but, on the contrary, urged as far as possible.

No. 16.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 1, 1806.—Received July 4.

Paris, July 1, 1806.

Sir,—I had the honour to receive, on Saturday night, the full powers with which it has graciously pleased his majesty to entrust

me, and your dispatch of the 26th of June.

I waited upon M. Talleyrand next morning, and stated to him, in the strongest manner, the impossibility of my conversing any further upon the general outlines of peace, until he should return to the former ground, and consider Sicily in its true and real situation, namely, a state not conquered by France, or likely to be so, and coming most strictly within the meaning of his own words; that it had been clearly expressed by him, and repeated to you in the first instance, that France did not intend to make Sicily an obstacle to peace. M. Talleyrand answered, that whilst the war continued, and till terms were actually agreed upon, change of circumstances were always to be considered as reasons for a partial change of terms; that Bonaparte had been but lately convinced of the facility of taking Sicily at some future period of the war; but that, above all, he felt more and more its absolute necessity to make Naples and the neighbouring territories tenable: that had any confidential overture been made three months ago, they would have been ready to settle the question of Naples in the manner most satisfactory to Great Britain; the same a month later with regard to Holland. Those subjects were now arranged, and the emperor would consider any retrograde measure as equivalent to abdication. I observed to that minister, that however much good faith may be necessary in every transaction of the world, yet that being more peculiarly so, when a communication is made secretly and verbally, I had a right to be doubly surprised at any change of ground. He defended himself by

(N 2)

his

his former argument about altered circumstances, and said, that when no change of disposition was manifested towards Great Britain herself,—as to the restoration of Hanover, or the possession of Malta and the Cape, he thought we might suffer them to possess themselves of a part of the states of their enemy, necessary to the tenure of the rest, which no consideration would now induce France to restore.

M. Talleyrand then asked, whether I had any powers. I told him that I must decline answering that question, until he should inform me that there would be no further discussion about Sicily; but that he might easily draw a conclusion that I had, from the honourable manner in which Great Britain endeavoured to remove every obstacle not in its own nature insurmountable.

The minister then mentioned his being obliged to go to St. Cloud, and asked, what I said. I answered, “That I was ordered to continue no conversation till I should be informed that this new demand, changing entirely the proposed basis, should be urged no more.” He appointed next morning for me to receive an answer.

I accordingly returned to the office yesterday morning, when M. Talleyrand repeated the same demand, offering to desist from the recognition by Great Britain of any or all the new states, waiving this concession to the honour of the powers created by France, and setting Hanover against Sicily, and pleading that no such recognition being demanded, Hanover would then appear a fair equivalent for that island. He read the draft of an article to this effect: ‘That Great Britain and France should not oppose each other’s arms against

such of the powers now at war, as should not be named in the preliminary articles.

To this I declined making any answer, repeating my orders not to converse further till he should abandon this proposition, and return to the former basis. I added that, unless he did so, I could expect nothing but your order to return to England.

M. Talleyrand wished to revert to the old topic, on which I repeated to him, that it was impossible for me to converse on any part of the subject, till he should entirely relinquish every mode of seeking for the possession of Sicily.

M. Talleyrand desired me to inform you, that on the 29th of June the French troops were to take possession of Cattaro.

No. 17.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 1, 1806.—Received July 4th.

Paris, July 1, 1806.—Midnight.

Sir,—After closing the dispatch I had the honour to address you this morning, I went for the passport M. Talleyrand had promised to have prepared for the messenger’s return.

Instead of giving me the passport, he made many excuses for its having escaped his memory, requesting me to wait till he should come back from St. Cloud.

When I returned, M. Talleyrand proposed to me to offer the Hanse Towns as an establishment for the king of Naples, and that the British troops should occupy them the same day they retake possession of Hanover. On a little further conversation, I had little doubt that, were England to provide

vide in any other manner for his Sicilian majesty, the king might add the Hanse Towns and their territories in full sovereignty to his German dominions.

The proposition about the Hanse Towns being entirely new, I promised to refer it without any comment to you for his majesty's consideration.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) YARMOUTH.

No. 18.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, July 5th, 1806.

Downing-street, 5th July, 1806.

My lord,—Your lordship's dispatches of the 1st instant were received here early yesterday morning, and I lose no time in apprising you of his majesty's commands upon the present state of the discussion with the French government.

The abandonment of Sicily is a point on which it is impossible for his majesty to concede. Your lordship has already stated unanswerably to M. Talleyrand, that this demand is inconsistent with his express declarations, and with the whole principle on which the negotiation rests. It is, besides, a proposal in itself quite inadmissible. The king's troops occupy Sicily for its defence; but with no right to cede it to France. It is not easy to contend, that the possession of Sicily can be necessary to that of Naples; nor, if it were so, could that be assigned as a reason for his majesty's consenting to abandon that island, which he may justly hope his naval and military

forces will be able to defend against all attacks. The Hanse Towns could not, in the present circumstances, answer the purpose of an equivalent for Sicily, even if there were not other obvious objections to such a proposal. Nor would it be possible that any solid basis for the public tranquillity of Europe could be established on the idea thrown out to you by M. Talleyrand, of leaving Great Britain and France at liberty to prosecute the war against the allies of each other; a state of things in which their respective fleets and armies would in fact be as much opposed to each other as they are now, and the peace between them would be merely nominal.

It is, therefore, to be hoped, that the French government will revert to its original proposals with which your lordship was charged by M. Talleyrand. To that basis of negotiation it must be your lordship's endeavour to recall him; and if, unfortunately, you should find this to be impracticable, nothing can remain but that you should state, in perfectly civil, but decided terms, that you are not at liberty to treat on any other ground, and must therefore desire your passports to return to England.

I have stated in my last letters the different ideas that had occurred here for combining our negotiation with that of Russia; providing, at the same time, for the safety of Sweden and Portugal.

Until we are informed what other proposal is made in this respect by M. Talleyrand, I can only desire that your lordship will keep this subject in view, so as not to admit of any thing inconsistent with the principle of good faith to which his majesty must in substance adhere,

but in such form as may best facilitate the great work of peace.

I am, &c.

No. 19.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 9th, 1806.—Received July 12th.

Paris, July 9th, 1806.

Sir,—I had the honour to receive your dispatch of the 5th instant early yesterday morning, and as soon as possible after waited upon M. Talleyrand, to communicate to him the offer made by France was by no means admissible, and that I had no authority to listen to any proposals whatsoever for the restoration of peace till he should desist from all pretension to the island of Sicily.

M. Talleyrand not being willing to make any such declaration, I asked him to give me a passport to return to London:—he desired me to wait one day, till he should again have taken the emperor's orders.

I accordingly returned this morning, when he desired me to propose Dalmatia, Albania, and Ragusa, as an indemnity for the loss of Sicily to his Sicilian majesty:—to this I answered, that as the messenger was returning I should communicate this proposition, but that it by no means authorised me to expect an answer, and therefore I must beg leave to return to England.

Had M. d'Oubril not been here, I should immediately have insisted on passports.

I must now inform you that on Monday M. Talleyrand took me aside and told me that the telegraph announced the landing of Basilico, expressing at the same time a wish

that the dispatches he would bring might lead to peace. I answered that I could expect no such result whilst France demanded Sicily; and added, that if I might believe public report, the emperor, so far from showing any pacific disposition, every day threw new obstacles in the way,

I then mentioned the changes in Germany. M. Talleyrand said that they were determined upon, but *should not* be published if peace took place. He has since repeated this to M. d'Oubril and myself, saying if peace was made, Germany should remain in its present state.

M. d'Oubril writes both to you and the comte de Strogonoff; his letters will probably contain more than mine, as I conversed very little with M. Talleyrand. I felt on very delicate ground. Had I entered sufficiently into the question of indemnities for the king of Sicily, to obtain a precise idea to what extent they could be carried, Monsieur de Talleyrand might have formed an opinion that I had some instructions, and was prepared to abandon Sicily whenever I was assured of sufficient compensation.

No. 20.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, July 18, 1806.

Downing-street, July 18, 1806.

My lord,—Your lordship's last dispatches have been received, and considered with all the attention which their importance naturally demanded.

It is unnecessary for me to recall to your recollection that the demand of Sicily, in whatever shape it may be brought forward by France, is in express contradiction to

to the offers originally made to your lordship by M. Talleyrand. But it is material that this topic should never be lost sight of in the course of these discussions; and that your lordship should observe to M. Talleyrand, that whatever difficulty now obstructs the conclusion of the negotiation, arises solely from this unexpected departure from the basis originally established.

An exchange is now offered for Sicily; and it is in that view, and not in that of an absolute and uncompensated cession, that the question is to be considered. In this shape of the business it is obvious that the value of that exchange must be to be judged of not only by this country and by Russia, but also by his Sicilian majesty; as the king, whose troops were admitted into Sicily for its defence and protection, naturally feels insuperable objections to any proposal for abandoning that island, unless with the free and full consent of its sovereign, and in consequence of such an arrangement as should provide for his interests by a compensation really satisfactory both in point of value and of security.

That plan of creating for him a new kingdom, to consist of Dalmatia, Ragusa, and Albania, does not appear likely to answer this description. Albania, which forms so large a part of this proposed sovereignty, is now a province of the Turkish empire; the dismemberment of which it is a principal object of the policy both of Great Britain and Russia to prevent: that province has indeed been frequently involved in the same sort of confusion which prevails in many other parts of that empire. But this circumstance only increases the difficulty of giving any consistency

to a state to be formed of such materials. It does not lessen the other objections to such a plan.

There are in like manner many strong objections to that part of the proposal which respects Ragusa; an independent state whose territory has never been ceded to France by any treaty, and of which she can consequently have no right to dispose, her occupation of it being indeed of very recent date.

But even with Albania and Ragusa and much more without them, his majesty sees no hope that such a power could be formed in that quarter as would, either in extent of territory or amount of revenue, afford the means of opposing any barrier for Austria or Turkey, or even of maintaining its own independence.

What advantage then could be gained to the allies by creating a nominal kingdom, without any sufficient power either to reduce the countries of which it would be composed under any uniform system of government, or to defend itself against the first attack which may be made upon it from without?

If there could, with the consent of his Sicilian majesty, be any question of an exchange for Sicily, by the creation of a new state in that quarter, it is obvious that this could no otherwise be done than by annexing to Dalmatia not only the whole of Istria, but also a very large proportion, if not the whole, of the Venetian states, including, if possible, the city of Venice itself. In some such shape as this it is possible that the proposition might be rendered not wholly unacceptable to his Sicilian majesty. And although the interests of this country separately would be far less consulted by such a plan than by the

continued occupation of Sicily, yet the sense which the Russian minister at Paris appears to entertain of the advantage which might result from it to Austria and to Russia from the recovery of Dalmatia, if it were well combined with future arrangements of defence, might induce his majesty to accede to proposals of this description; on the supposition above-mentioned, of a *bonâ fide* consent on the part of his Sicilian majesty.

There appears, however, so little probability of inducing France so to extend her offer, that any further discussion of it might scarcely have been worth pursuing, had not M. d'Oubril so strongly expressed his wish, that this court might rather seek to temporize than abruptly to break off a negotiation now brought to a state which affords so little promise of success. It is only in compliance with that desire that his majesty has been pleased to direct your lordship to continue the conferences with M. Talleyrand, so as to ascertain whether any more practicable shape can be given to the proposal of an exchange for Sicily. If this cannot be done, your lordship's attention will then, of course, be directed to the object of recalling the French government to the basis on which the negotiation was originally placed by themselves, and on which his majesty is still ready to conclude it.

M. d'Oubril has stated to count Strogonoff the proposals which have been made to him for the conclusion of a separate peace, and the inducements which, he thinks, might lead his majesty to judge such an arrangement useful to the general interests of Europe. His majesty has undoubtedly been at all times ready to make great sacrifices for those interests; but very

little expectation is entertained here, that Russia could, in such course, obtain any effectual security for them, at a time when so much new danger is to be apprehended, and in so many quarters, from the projects of France with respect to Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, the Porte, Spain, and Portugal.

In the present circumstances of Europe, the last hope of averting these dangers is to be found in the union of the only two powers on whom France has as yet made no impression, Great Britain and Russia.

And although the mutual good dispositions and confidence of those two powers should in fact remain (as his majesty trusts they would) unimpaired by the difference of the situation in which a separate peace would place them, yet it is obvious, that the enemy would build the most extensive hopes on that foundation, and would be more encouraged by that, than by any other circumstances that could be stated, to proceed in the execution of the plans already announced to your lordship and to M. d'Oubril.

His majesty, therefore, directs that you should express to that minister how material it is in every case that the two courts should continue to combine their measures both of peace and war, and that no expectation should be held out to the enemy of success in any endeavour to conclude a separate peace with either of the allies; a line to which, as your lordship will have informed M. d'Oubril, his majesty has, on his part, strictly adhered.

No. 21.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox,

Fox, dated Paris, July 19.—Received July 22d.

Paris, July 19, 1805.—12 o'clock at night.

Sir,—On the 10th, general Clarke was named plenipotentiary to treat with Monsieur d'Oubril: they have since had daily conferences of many hours, yesterday of fourteen. I hear every where that peace will be signed to-morrow, between Russia and France. On the 17th M. d'Oubril admitted to me, that he had produced his powers, and that if conditions, such as he should judge necessary to ensure the repose of the continent, could be obtained, he should sign a truce of ten months; and this night, on pressing him, and remonstrating both upon his conduct and the impropriety of disguising his intention, I drew from him these words, which I wrote down in his presence. "*Que voyant le danger immédiat de l'Auriche, s'il pouvoit la sauver, il croiroit de son devoir de le faire, même par une paix particulière**." All he now appears to claim is the return of the troops from Germany; and if he is willing to make peace on receiving an assurance that orders to that effect shall be sent, nobody can doubt but that it will be signed, and probably not a battalion make a retrograde movement of fifty miles.

M. Talleyrand says, that M. d'Oubril is willing to abandon Sicily and Dalmatia, and even to engage to solicit the junction of the former to Naples, &c.

I have used every argument to dissuade M. d'Oubril from so unadvised and unwise a measure, I

hope, more than I believe, with success. Indeed, I feared, from the first hour I met him, that he was come determined to make a peace, good or bad, with or without Great Britain. I may perhaps gain a day, which may be a great deal, if that day should produce dispatches from M. de Strogonoff.

On the 17th, at night, the new arrangements for Germany were finally determined upon. The princes and the ministers who signed were scarce allowed time to read the deed.

There is a considerable army forming at Bayonne; thirty thousand men are there already. This army is ostensibly destined against Portugal, but will take Spain likewise. M. Herman, one of the secretaries of the foreign office, set off for Lisbon with a mission on the 13th.

All the officers of the army now in Germany received yesterday orders to join their regiments instantly. The court say, this is to have troops to occupy the states seized by the new confederacy. The public ascribe this measure to a desire to frighten the emperor of Germany; and myself, to a wish to hurry M. d'Oubril, who has shown so much anxiety for the evacuation of Germany.

M. d'Oubril and M. Talleyrand have, as I have learnt, fixed upon Majorca, Ivica, and Minorca, for his Sicilian majesty, if they can prevail upon us to evacuate Sicily.

I have the honour to be, Sir, &c.
YARMOUTH.

No. 22.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl

* "That being aware of the immediate danger of Austria, if it was in his power to save it, he should think it his duty to do so, even by a separate peace."

of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 20th, 1806.—Received July 24th.

Paris, July 20th, 1806.—11 at night.

Sir,—At nine this morning, having had the honour to receive your letters by Mr. Longuinoff, and written a few lines to you in addition to my dispatches of last night, I went to M. d'Oubril; and, as I am happy since to find, anticipated the contents of your dispatch of the 18th inst.

I used every argument and means to obtain delay; engaged to break off, if he did; and, finally, authorised him to hold out hopes, that I would listen to propositions of indemnity in lieu of Sicily for his Sicilian majesty, if proposed by him, and accompanied by a joint negotiation.

I begged he would do nothing till after Basilico should have arrived, as I had learned by the telegraph that he had landed last night.

I did not find him disposed to listen to me; and, not being willing to be too communicative towards him at that moment, I went away.

At twelve, I waited upon M. Talleyrand: he was not to be seen.

At four, I heard from good authority that peace was signed. At six, Basilico arrived. I then went to M. d'Oubril. He was said not to be at home; but, seeing his carriage, I forced my way. He admitted the fact, *peace is signed*; the conditions, the evacuation *instantly* of Germany by the French troops; the integrity, &c. of the Ottoman empire; no attempt to be made upon Swedish Pomerania; and by a secret article, Russia promises to obtain his Sicilian majesty's consent to an exchange of Sicily for Majorca, Minorca, and

Ivica. Russia to use her good offices to restore peace between France and England.

I have not seen the treaty; but I believe it contains nothing else material.

M. d'Oubril sends a copy to M. Strogonoff, and goes himself to St. Petersburg. I had no patience to listen to M. d'Oubril's defence of his conduct, so I did not claim his good offices. I must have asked him officially to stay, which I did not choose to do.—I have the honour to be, &c.

YARMOUTH.

No. 23.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 21, 1806.—Received July 24.

Paris, July 21, 1806.

Sir,—I saw M. Talleyrand today. I can perceive that the terms of France are increased, but still not so much as the sudden defection of Russia had led me to apprehend. Hanover, Malta, the Cape, and India, remain pure and unsullied; and I took an opportunity in conversation to protest, that come what come might, these were points I never would suffer to be mentioned, but as points agreed upon.

M. Talleyrand demanded my powers. I did not think myself authorised, in the present circumstances, to withhold them.

General Clarke is named to treat with me.

No. 25.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 24, 1806.—Received July 28.

Paris, July 24, 1806.

Sir,—I had the honour to send by

by M. de Longuinoff, dispatches acquainting you, for his majesty's information, of the peace signed between the Russian and French plenipotentiaries, and with as accurate a statement of the terms as I was able to obtain. M. d'Oubril himself set out for Petersburg early on the morning of the 22d.

On the 22d I received the official notification of the appointment of gen. Clarke to treat on the part of France (a copy of which I have the honour to inclose marked A), preceded by a private communication from M. Talleyrand, saying, that the Russian peace being signed, and the season of the year favourable to the accomplishment of the ulterior views of France, no arrangement, which might remove for some weeks or even months a definitive treaty, could now take place.

I answered the official note (marked A) with one, a copy of which I inclose (marked B).

In the evening general Clarke proposed a conference for the following morning, at which we should mutually exchange our full powers. We accordingly did so; and I have the honour to inclose (marked C) a copy of those of general Clarke.

This conference began by an historical recapitulation of what had been previously passed, general Clarke saying, he had not yet received his final instructions on all the different points in discussion: it was therefore agreed to adjourn the conference to this day, when each should come prepared with a memorandum of the intentions of his government, founded on what had already passed; general Clarke at the same time declaring that a separate peace with Russia was to be considered equal or superior, in the

present circumstances of the world, to any great success in war, and consequently as entitling France to terms much more advantageous than those to which she would have subscribed some days ago. This was accompanied by some animadversions upon the conduct of Russia, to which I could only answer, that I felt it my duty to abstain from any remark, and should, therefore, be entirely silent upon that subject; but that I could assure him, that if an intention existed of making any change in the great points upon which we have had such positive, though certainly not official, assurances, namely, his majesty's German dominions, Malta, and the Cape, I must consider the negotiation as stopped *in limine*, and that there would remain only for me to return to England, and acquaint the king that no peace, consistent with his majesty's honour or that of the country, could be made. General Clarke reverted to his want of full instructions, and promised to meet me properly prepared the next day.

At three o'clock this day I again met general Clarke, when I read a paper, a copy of which I have the honour to inclose (marked D), containing the abstract of what I had always stated to be the basis and terms on which his majesty could alone consent to treat. I did not, however, deliver it to him, considering it merely as the heads of past conversations.

General Clarke then said, that as it was impossible I could be prepared with the assent of his majesty to the arrangement proposed by Russia for his Sicilian majesty, on which the terms might much depend, I must consider the communication he made as not strictly official in point of form, but as depending

pending only on that circumstance to make it so.

General Clarke proceeded to state, that, in the situation France was in at this moment, the emperor would feel authorised to withhold some of the great points; but that having repeatedly said the contrary, though not in an official manner, he would abide by it.

General Clarke first conversed about his majesty's German dominions. On this subject, by secret articles, any thing his majesty thinks right may be stipulated: by the public article, the promise not to object to some acquisition of territory to be made by Prussia. I stopped general Clarke here, to say, that his majesty never could consent to the king of Prussia's obtaining the Hanse Towns. General Clarke said, it was Fulda, Hoya, and some other trifling principalities, over which it was proposed to extend the sovereignty of his Prussian majesty, but that the independence and present state of the Hanse Towns should not be meddled with.

On the subject of Malta—Malta, Gozo, and Conino in full sovereignty to his majesty, with a clause in the article declaratory of the dissolution of the order, and that the two powers, "*n'en connoissent plus l'existence**." Some pensions for the chevaliers and others, having "*des droits réels dans l'isle†*."—This not to extend to foreign commanderies of the order, or to any claim not local.

The Cape in equal full sove-

reignty;—as a condition it is desired, "*qu'il y soit établi un port franc‡*" to all nations: either the port itself declared so, or a part appropriated to that purpose.

On the subject of the maintenance of the integrity of the territories and possessions of the sublime Porte, general Clarke proposed an article, a copy of which I have the honour to send (marked E). I told him the usual full clause would be sufficient: he persisted that I should send it for his majesty's consideration.

To the usual full clause of the integrity of the territories and possessions of his most faithful majesty, general Clarke weighed upon a proposed addition of the word "*par-tout§*;" and when asked for explanation, said, he thought his Britannic majesty might occupy some of his most faithful majesty's foreign possessions.

The integrity of his Swedish majesty's dominions in the usual manner.

Having dismissed these points, general Clarke stated the demands of France:—Pondicherry, St. Lucie, Tobago, Surinam, Goree, Demarara, Berbice, Essequibo.

The recognition in the usual words "*est reconnu||*," of the different branches of the reigning family; of the electors of Bavaria and Wirtemberg as kings; of the new dukes of Cleves, Baden, and Darmstadt.

In discussing for many hours these demands, I never for an instant admitted the possibility of his

* No longer recognise the existence of it.

† Real rights in the island.

‡ That there should be established there a free port.

§ In every part of the world.

|| Is recognised.

majesty consenting to the cessions required. I sought, however, to ascertain to what extent, and in what manner, they could be modified.

[The inclosures (A B C) relate to the appointment and powers of general Clarke to negotiate on the part of France.]

Fourth inclosure (D).—Translation.

Extract from a paper read to general Clarke by the earl of Yarmouth.

The situation in which the two belligerent powers are now placed by the course of the events of the war, leaving few points of immediate contact between them, or on which they may not, according to all appearance, come now to an understanding, his Britannic majesty, animated no less than the emperor of the French with a desire to put an end to the calamities of war, has authorised the undersigned (furnished with the full powers of his majesty) to discuss the basis, and to give full effect to this reciprocal desire.

The immense acquisitions made by France since the commencement of hostilities, and the direct and immediate influence which she has obtained, having entirely changed the political system of Europe, his Britannic majesty, finds himself obliged to seek in the conquests he has made, and in the possession of Malta, a just and reasonable counterpoise. His majesty would consequently treat generally on the basis of the *uti possidetis*.

It is at the same time understood, that the German possessions of his Britannic majesty, of which he was deprived from motives foreign to the war between the two

powers, shall be restored to him entire.

It is likewise understood, that the peace shall secure the integrity of the territories and possessions of the sublime Porte, of his Most Faithful Majesty, of his majesty the king of Sweden, and the present state of Switzerland.

Fifth inclosure (E).—Translation.

Copy of an article proposed by general Clarke to the earl of Yarmouth, for the maintenance of the Ottoman empire.

The two contracting powers reciprocally guarantee the entire and absolute integrity and independence of the Ottoman empire. They will mutually oppose the pretensions of any power to any thing contrary to the usages, the rights of sovereignty, and the possessions of the sublime Porte.

No. 26.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, July 26, 1806.

Downing-street, July 26, 1806.

My lord,—Your lordship's dispatches, conveying the mortifying intelligence of the signature of a separate treaty between Russia and France, were received here yesterday; and his majesty's ministers have since had the opportunity of being acquainted with the precise terms of that treaty, which it appears had not in all respects been accurately represented to your lordship.

The king was most particularly struck with the great difference which was perceived between the actual arrangement made respecting

ing Sicily, and that which had been described to your lordship.

In writing to your lordship, it is not necessary to dwell on the humiliating conditions to which M. d'Oubril has thought proper to bind his sovereign. Of that minister's misconduct your lordship appears fully sensible; and I doubt not you exerted yourself to the utmost to prevent it. When this was found impracticable, your lordship was naturally placed in circumstances of considerable difficulty, and for which every allowance is to be made. But it is necessary for me to say, frankly, that it would on the whole have been more satisfactory to the king's servants if your lordship had waited to know the impression which this new event might create here before you had produced your full powers.

It was originally declared by your lordship to M. Talleyrand, that your full powers were not to be produced till the French government should have reverted to the basis of negotiation originally proposed by themselves; that of the *uti possidetis* universally, with the single exception of Hanover. By subsequent instructions, your lordship has indeed been acquainted that, in compliance with the wish so strongly expressed by the Russian negotiator at Paris, his majesty would not refuse to enter into the consideration of such proposals as might be made to him for a fair equivalent to be given to his Sicilian majesty in lieu of Sicily, with the full and free consent of that monarch. The proposal of such an equivalent, and its acceptance by his majesty's government, would have replaced the negotiation on its original footing, that of an *uti*

possidetis, to be departed from only by mutual consent, in those cases where any exchange for a reasonable equivalent might meet the ideas of both parties; and the case for the production of your lordship's full powers would thus have arisen clearly and unequivocally. Even as the matter now stands, it does not certainly preclude discussion. But this might have been continued unofficially. And it is apprehended that, by producing your powers on the very day after the signature of the Russian treaty, an impression may have been created very unfavourable to the further progress of the negotiation.

In the situation to which the business is now brought, his majesty thinks it necessary to lose no time in taking every proper step for replacing the discussions between the two countries on their original footing.

The first proposals made by France were, that a plenipotentiary should be sent from hence with full powers to treat, and to conclude a separate peace with France and her allies. This was declined here, not from any unwillingness to enter into discussions for peace on just and honourable terms,—an object which his majesty has uniformly expressed himself desirous of accomplishing,—but because the king was bound by engagements to Russia which precluded him from treating otherwise than in concert with that power. Subsequently to this, a proposal was conveyed through your lordship for the conclusion of peace on the basis so often referred to; and the intermediate communication received from Russia enabled his majesty, consistently with good faith, to entertain those proposals, and to express

express his disposition to accede to them, provided that, in the mode of treating and concluding, the most intimate concert should still be maintained with Russia.

The extraordinary step taken by M. d'Oubril has now removed all necessity of further reserve on this point.

His majesty, in this state of things, thinks it proper to combine together the two proposals which he has at different periods received from France; and, as the difficulty which before prevented the sending from this country a public minister, openly accredited, to treat for peace, now no longer subsists, and as an acceptable basis of negotiation has been proposed to him by the enemy, his majesty directs that your lordship should apply to M. Talleyrand for passports for a public minister so authorised and accredited, to whom it is his majesty's gracious intention to join your lordship, in the full powers to be granted by his majesty.

The great advantages which the king's service will derive from the employment of a person fully instructed as to the sentiments of his majesty's government on all the various points of discussion that may arise, cannot fail to strike your lordship in the same light in which they are seen here; and the king's servants entertain no doubt of your lordship's zealous and hearty co-operation in the execution of the joint instructions which such a person will bring with him. I have only therefore to add, that your lordship may assure M. Talleyrand, that as soon as the necessary passports are received, there shall not be an hour's delay in his setting out; and that his majesty's government continues ardently to wish for the conclusion of peace,

provided it can be accomplished on the same grounds of national honour which have never been lost sight of here.

No. 27.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, July 28, 1806.

My lord,—Your lordship's dispatch of the 24th instant was received here this morning, and, as it is probable that, in the course of this day, or to-morrow at furthest, your lordship will receive mine of the 26th instant, I do not think it necessary to do more at present, than to request that your lordship will assure M. Talleyrand, that, immediately on the receipt of the passports which you have been instructed to demand, the earl of Lauderdale, who has been humbly recommended to his majesty for this important trust, will be prepared to set out; and that he will, therefore, of course, be with your lordship in a very few days from this date. I need hardly observe to your lordship, that it is of the utmost importance, that, in the interim, your lordship should avoid taking any step, or even holding any language, which may tend in the smallest degree to commit the opinion of his majesty's government on any part of the matters now depending.

No. 28.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, July 30, 1806.—Received August 1.

Sir,—I had the honour to receive your dispatch of the 25th instant, late at night, on the 26th, and next morning lost no time in asking

asking for blank passports for a person fully instructed with the sentiments of his majesty's government, whom it was their intention to join with me in the important commission of treating for peace. M. Talleyrand told me he must take the emperor's orders. I accordingly returned this day, when that minister informed me, that the emperor could consider this demand in no other light but that of unnecessary delay, because his majesty's secretary of state was actually in possession of a blank passport, which would enable any person or persons to come to Paris without the loss of time occasioned by this demand, but that *pour surcroît de facilités**," there could be no difficulty about giving more. I answered that I had no knowledge of this circumstance. M. Talleyrand said it was certain, because he had sent two entirely in blank, and that one only had been used, namely, that with which I returned.

It is unnecessary for me to add any thing to what I have already said to my former dispatches, relative to the signature of the Russian treaty; any inaccuracy in the statement of its contents, such as I was enabled to transmit them, may easily be accounted for by the circumstance of my not having seen the treaty itself, and by the unwillingness M. d'Oubril naturally felt to open himself to me on that subject: he informed me at the time that he should send a copy to M. De Strogonoff, who would communicate it to his majesty's ministers.

It is with pain, sir, proportioned to my zeal for his majesty's service, and to the fair and honest conviction

of my having done nothing which the peculiar and trying circumstances of the moment did not require from me, that I have learnt by the same dispatch the expression of a wish that I had delayed the production of my full powers till I could know the impression which this event of the Russian treaty might produce in his majesty's councils, and the apprehension that by the producing them, so soon after the signature of the Russian treaty, an impression might be created unfavourable to the further progress of the negotiation.

If the question regarded only my own personal feelings, I should not think myself at liberty to allot to it so large a portion of a public dispatch; but it may not, I conceive, be unuseful, with a view to the conduct of the negotiation, that you should be apprised of some details which I have hitherto omitted dwelling upon, partly from the urgency of more important subjects, and partly from my desire not to trespass upon your attention to so great an extent. I trust, sir, that his majesty will see in these details wherewithal to justify my conduct in the difficult situation in which I was placed.

The fate of Holland and Naples were settled before I was honoured with his majesty's confidence. My conversation here with M. Talleyrand soon convinced me that these were only preludes to still greater changes in the system of Europe. I saw at the same time a great desire of negotiation, before the final execution of some of the emperor's schemes should have removed any hope of its being attended with success.

* For still greater facility.

This opinion, not pre-conceived or lightly taken up, but gradually formed from a variety of circumstances, was confirmed by the nature of the offers held out, unofficially indeed, but in such clear and unequivocal terms, that it was impossible to entertain any doubt of the intention of this government to adhere to them.

The point which of all others was the most essential, and that on which satisfaction was due to the national honour and to that of his majesty, Hanover, would, I was assured, be given up without restriction; for I did not then know we should be asked to allow the king of Prussia to obtain the sovereignty of some of the lesser principalities.

I received similar assurances about Malta, and the Cape of Good Hope; nor have I any reason to doubt but that before Russia had made her peace separately, these terms might have been obtained, and the treaty have had solely for its basis the *uti possidetis*, with the sole exception in our favour of Hanover restored, and latterly indeed of some arrangements tolerable to all parties in exchange for Sicily.

M. Talleyrand held the same language to me, with respect to Russia, which he had before held with regard to the affairs of Germany. "You have now been here a month; we have been willing to converse with you, to give you an insight into our views, and to communicate them to the British government. We told you, that if you had the powers, and would enter into a negotiation, we would

not sign the arrangement of Germany. A reasonable time was left for you to consult your government; we had no answer. The arrangement was signed, '*et nous n'en reviendrons jamais**.' We now ask you whether you will treat before Russia has signed, which will not pass two days."

It cannot be necessary to state my answer to such a proposition. I will only add, that the treaty with Russia was signed within the time mentioned, and then commenced the difficulty of my situation.

"Switzerland," I was told by the same authority, "is on the eve of undergoing a great change. This cannot be averted but by a peace with England; but still less can we alter, for any other consideration, our intention of invading Portugal. The army destined for that purpose is already assembling at Bayonne. This is for the determination of Great Britain."

But I confess the point of all others the most decisive in inducing me to produce my full powers, was the language held respecting Prussia.

"Prussia demands from us a declaration respecting Hanover: we cannot consent wantonly to lose the only ally France has had since the revolution; the declaration once made '*nous n'en pouvons nous retracter*†.' Would you have us break entirely with Prussia, when we cannot even say that Great Britain will negotiate with us? Are you here only with orders to delay our measures till the season of the year makes exertion impossible; or can you treat? If

* And we will never recede from it.

† We cannot retract.

so, is not the assurance we give you that Hanover, Malta, and the Cape, shall not be contested, sufficient to induce you to do so? Must we lay before the British government our exact terms, before they will even avow negotiation with so great a power as that of France? or shall we execute our other projects, as we did those in Holland and Naples?"

Undoubtedly, sir, conversations of this sort, confirmed even as they were by the events passing under my eyes, could never have induced me to commit his majesty's confidential servants upon any point upon which I had not received their instructions, and which left no time to receive them; but I did not think myself at liberty to shift from myself the responsibility thus thrown upon me, at the risk of seeing Portugal and Switzerland share the same fate which Germany has just experienced; and Hanover confirmed to Prussia, until such time as his majesty's arms should recover the possession of it.

The mode of proceeding of this government left me no alternative. Either to avow negotiation, or shut up every opening to it, was my only option.

I felt that I pledged his majesty to nothing except the fact of negotiation, already privately known to every court in Europe.

I carefully forbore giving any written paper, or admitting even the possibility of any other basis than that of *uti possidetis*.

I have ascertained the real extent of the pretensions of France; and I did consider myself to have prevented a great evil at small expense, by having given time to yourself and his majesty's other confidential servants, to provide, by the further instructions you might

judge proper, for the interest of the powers, thus, for the moment at least, saved from the grasp of France.

I persuade myself that the motives here detailed, upon which I acted at the moment, will place in a stronger light the difficulties of my position, and will on further consideration obtain his majesty's gracious approbation of the conduct which I thought myself obliged to hold in consequence.

His majesty's ministers would have relieved me from much painful responsibility if they had commanded me to proceed no further, and wait the arrival of the person alluded to, and for whom I have the honour to enclose the necessary passport, which I have this moment received.

Mr. Goddard, whom a long residence in France, independent of his abilities and correct information on what has passed here, renders entirely able to give his majesty's ministers every explanation they may wish for, is so good as to take this dispatch with him to England, where he is returning at the end of his long captivity in this country.

I have the honour to be, sir, &c.
YARMOUTH.

No. 29.

Copy of a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, Aug. 2, 1806.

Downing-street, Aug. 2, 1806.

My lord,—Mr. Goddard arrived here yesterday evening with your lordship's dispatch of the 30th July.

His majesty's servants always did justice to the motives which induced your lordship to produce your full powers, though the step is one of which it is not possible for them

to express approbation, thinking it, as they do, likely to have given so much more countenance than was desirable to the new and increasing demands of France.

The full powers which lord Lauderdale carries with him, are drawn jointly in his name and your lordship's. In the present disposition of the French government, there is, I fear, little probability that peace can be concluded on such terms as are alone admissible. The trial should, however, be made with frankness and good faith; and it is with this view that his majesty has been pleased to direct that the earl of Lauderdale should proceed to Paris, notwithstanding the present unfavourable aspect of the negotiation. His instructions your lordship will consider as equally addressed to yourself, and as the rule of your conduct in any conferences which, in conjunction with him, you may have with monsieur Talleyrand or general Clarke; and, in any point of doubt that may occur, it is his majesty's pleasure that your lordship should be guided by lord Lauderdale's opinion, formed, as it will be, on the fullest knowledge of the sentiments and views of his majesty's government. I am, &c.

(Signed) C. J. Fox.

No. 30.

Copy of a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, Aug. 3, 1806.

My lord,--I was unwilling to detain lord Lauderdale for the purpose of replying particularly to the unfounded allegations of M. Talleyrand, which you have recapitulated in your dispatch, of the 30th ult. But some points are there mention-

ed which cannot be left without an answer, such, indeed, as I trust your lordship has already given to them.

It is true, as stated by that minister, that when the demand was made for lord Lauderdale's passport, there still remained here a blank passport, one of the two sent here some time before your lordship's arrival, when it had been proposed to us to treat separately from Russia. That proposal having fallen to the ground, the circumstance of our being still in possession of the passport was overlooked; but, even if it had occurred, some doubt would probably have arisen, how far it might be proper, in so different a state of things, to make use of it for lord Lauderdale, without some previous communication of such an intention. This whole matter is, however, very immaterial. The principal point to which I feel it necessary to advert, is that part of M. Talleyrand's language which imputes to this country needless delays in the negotiation, and attributes to that cause the unjustifiable measures pursued by France in Germany and elsewhere.

In the instructions given to lord Lauderdale, the repeated tergiversations of France during the negotiation are detailed. It is from thence, alone, that delay has arisen.

Your lordship truly states, that the offers made through yourself were so clearly and unequivocally expressed, that the intention of the French government could not be doubted. But they were no sooner made than departed from. In the first conference after your lordship's return to France, Sicily was demanded. In the former offers, it had been distinctly disclaimed, "*Vous l'avez---nous ne vous la deman-*

*mandons pas. Si nous la possédions elle pourroit augmenter de beaucoup les difficultés**” This demand, therefore, could not have been foreseen, being in contradiction to their own assurances; and your lordship could only take it *ad referendum*. This produced a delay attributable solely to France. Our answer was immediate and distinct. The new demand was declared to be a breach of the principle of the proposed basis in its most essential part. To obviate a cavil on the subject of full powers, they were sent to you; but with an express injunction not to use them, nor even to produce them formally, till the French government should return to its former ground respecting Sicily. Your lordship stated this to M. Talleyrand, and you received, in return, a proposal of giving to his majesty, or to the king of Naples, the Hanse Towns in lieu of Sicily. This being again a proposition entirely new, could only be referred for his majesty’s consideration. On the very next day after it arrived, it was decidedly rejected here; and so little were we disposed to delay, that the same dispatch conveyed to you his majesty’s orders, if the demand of Sicily should still be persisted in, to desire your passports, and return to England.

Of this order your lordship informed M. Talleyrand; and its execution was delayed only by a fresh proposal of exchanges brought forward by France, and supported by the Russian minister, as affording the means by which his majesty might prevent, amongst other

things, the changes meditated in Germany. M. Talleyrand, it appears, now represents this communication in the following terms: —“ We told you, that, if you had powers, and would enter into negotiation, we would not sign the arrangement in Germany.” M. Talleyrand’s real communication is to be found in your lordship’s dispatch of the 9th July, in which he says, that those changes “*were determined upon, but should not be published if peace took place.*”

That dispatch was received here on the 12th; and on the 17th, in direct violation of these assurances, in whichever form they were conveyed, the German treaties were both signed and published.

They must of course have been prepared at least one day before. What M. Talleyrand therefore calls a reasonable time allowed to your lordship to consult your government, was at the most 24 hours, even supposing the utmost possible expedition to be made by the messengers to and from England, and no accident or delay to occur by land or sea. These dates will undoubtedly not have escaped your lordship’s attention, and will have enabled you to refute, in the most decisive manner, the unfounded pretences by which the French government seeks to attribute delays on our part, the results of its own injustice and repeated breach of promise.

The whole of our intercourse with France bears, indeed, so different a character from that of delay, and the whole of the king’s conduct in this, as in every other

* * You are in possession of it. We do not demand it of you. If we possessed it, the difficulties might be much increased.

instance, is marked by so many striking proofs of his desire to avert, even by the greatest sacrifices, such calamities as he is now accused of producing, that your lordship may perhaps have felt it less necessary to enter into a particular refutation of such a charge.

But after the experience which in this negotiation we have had of the conduct of the French government, it is of the highest consequence not to suffer such imputations to pass unnoticed, and, by disregard, to acquire strength and currency.

Of the subsequent proceedings, no explanation can be necessary.

It had not been decided here, that in the event of the signature of the Russian treaty, the negotiation on the part of this country should be pursued on any other basis but that of the strict *uti possidetis*, with the exception of Hanover. The resolution of admitting even the possibility of an equivalent for Sicily had been adopted only in consequence of M. d'Oubril's desire, and in order to maintain, if it had been possible, the union of council and measures between Great Britain and Russia.

But by the production of your lordship's full powers, his majesty was in some sort pledged to continue the negotiation. It was then judged proper that a fresh negotiator should be added to your lordship, and not an instant has been lost in giving effect to that determination; nor has any considerable delay occurred on this side the water, except in the single point respecting the passport, which I have explained in the outset of this dispatch.

I am, &c.

(Signed) C. J. Fox.

No. 33.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, Aug. 7. 1806.
—Received Aug. 13.

Paris, August 7, 1806.

Sir,—I received in due time, and in their order, your several dispatches of the 28th ult. and 2d and 3d inst. As no messenger has been dispatched from hence since the receipt of them, I have been obliged to defer till now replying to their contents.

It was with great satisfaction that I learnt by your dispatch of the 2d instant, the intelligence of lord Lauderdale's departure from England; as, independently of the advantages I must derive from communicating with a person charged with the latest and fullest instructions from his majesty, his arrival here afforded me the opportunity of evincing, in the clearest manner, that I had in no instance thought myself at liberty to depart from the basis originally laid down as the only one on which his majesty's ministers could consent to treat with the French government.

It must be evident, that whatever delays have occurred in the negotiation are imputable to France, and to the perpetual variation of the terms proposed by her; and I had not failed before the receipt of your dispatch of the 3d instant, repeatedly to do justice to the conduct of his majesty's government in that respect.

As in the line of conduct which I thought it my duty to observe previous to the earl of Lauderdale's arrival, I had no other object in view than the fulfilling to
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the best of my abilities the mission with which his majesty had been graciously pleased to charge me, I can, under the present circumstances, have no other ambition than that of co-operating with my best endeavours in the negotiation entrusted to us jointly upon the same basis on which I had originally placed it.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) YARMOUTH.

No. 35.

Copy of a dispatch from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, August 9, 1806.—Received August 13.

Paris, August 9, 1806.

Sir—Thinking it unnecessary to send a courier to England with details of the mere matters of form which necessarily took place after lord Lauderdale's arrival, we have delayed writing till there appeared something of importance to communicate to you.

We have now to inform you, that lord Lauderdale, having exhibited his powers, and delivered a copy in the customary form, our first meeting with general Clarke, the plenipotentiary of the French government, took place at his house, on Thursday 7th August, at noon.

Our conversation commenced by general Clarke's observing that as lord Lauderdale had just arrived from London, with full instructions from his majesty, he had probably something new to communicate.

Lord Lauderdale in substance replied, that it was his wish, before intermeddling with the negotiation now pending, distinctly to recall to the recollection of general Clarke

what had already passed between his majesty and the government of France, and at once precisely to state the only footing on which his majesty could consent to treat. To effect this object, he informed general Clarke that he had prepared a note (marked A.) which he begged to deliver to him as official.

General Clarke read the note twice with great attention, and afterwards placed it in his portfolio, saying that he must take it *ad referendum*.

Very little passed at this meeting sufficiently interesting to merit being detailed: the general objected to the practice he apprehended lord Lauderdale meant to introduce, of conducting the negotiation by writing; and said he was afraid the emperor would regard it as a means of endless delay, if a note was to be delivered upon every insignificant question which it might be necessary to discuss. The reply consisted merely in stating the distinction betwixt delivering a written note for the purpose of at once bringing to a point the basis on which the negotiation was to be conducted, and resorting on every trivial occasion to that practice. The first, it was contended, must accelerate; the latter, it was admitted, would delay the negotiation; and it would be therefore carefully avoided, as it was his majesty's wish that no delay should take place.

General Clarke, with something like an insinuation that an unfair advantage was taken by the government of Great Britain, announced, that as there had been two plenipotentiaries appointed by his majesty, it was the emperor's intention to do the same, and that the

name

name of the person selected would be communicated to us.

It is proper to state, that in the course of this conversation lord Yarmouth recalled to general Clarke's recollection, that in all the interviews he had had with him, he uniformly stated the *uti possidetis* as the only basis upon which he could possibly treat. General Clarke in reply said, that he could make no answer to what lord Yarmouth stated, without alluding to conversations which he affected to consider as loose, calling them "*des romans politiques* *;" at the same time by his silence he clearly admitted what lord Yarmouth most distinctly stated.

Our first interview terminated with an appointment to meet at lord Lauderdale's apartments on Friday the 8th, at twelve o'clock, the general observing that it might be perhaps necessary to put off the appointment, as he wished to have full time to consider the note which had been delivered, and as the new plenipotentiary might wish to have an opportunity carefully to read the correspondence that hitherto had taken place. He promised at the same time, if this was the case, to give us notice by writing in the morning.

On Friday the 8th, at eleven, the inclosures (marked B and C) were left at lord Lauderdale's apartments; and an answer was sent to general Clarke, stating that an appointment had been made by lords Lauderdale and Yarmouth to receive the Turkish ambassador at four o'clock, and requesting that the meeting should take place on Saturday the 9th, at noon.

General Clarke and monsieur de

Champagny, minister of the interior, the newly appointed plenipotentiary, afterwards put off this meeting till four o'clock to-day, as the latter was obliged to attend the emperor's privy-council at St. Cloud.

Late on Friday night lord Yarmouth received the answer to the note delivered by lord Lauderdale, a copy of which (marked D) is inclosed, to which lord Lauderdale and lord Yarmouth immediately returned the answer, also inclosed, (marked E).

General Clarke and M. de Champagny came to the meeting appointed at four o'clock, and a conversation took place which lasted for upwards of two hours. Into the details of this it is impossible now to enter. The general object of it was to engage lord Lauderdale to depart from the basis which he had insisted should be recognised, to prevail upon him to consult his government, or to take ten or fifteen days for consideration; but it terminated by lord Lauderdale's declaring that the last note was to be considered as a prelude to his demanding passports, for which he should apply to M. Talleyrand in the course of the evening.

The letter, a copy of which (marked F) is inclosed, was dispatched to M. Talleyrand, half an hour after the departure of the plenipotentiaries, and it appears highly improbable that any proposition should be made which can alter our resolution of leaving France the moment the passports arrive.

We have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.
YARMOUTH.

* Political romances.

First inclosure (A).—Copy of a note delivered by the earl Lauderdale to general Clarke, on the 7th of August, 1806. [Corresponds with No. 13 of the French account.]

[The inclosure B. merely relates to an alteration of the hour of meeting.]

[The inclosure C. is a note from Talleyrand announcing the appointment of M. de Champagny to treat conjointly with general Clarke.]

Fourth inclosure (D).—Copy of a note from general Clarke to the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated August 8, 1806.—Answers to No. 14 of the French account.

Fifth inclosure (E).—Copy of a note from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to general Clarke, dated August 9, 1806.—Answers to No. 15 in the French account.

Sixth inclosure (F).—Copy of a note from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to M. Talleyrand, dated Aug. 9, 1806.—Corresponds with No. 16 in the French account.

No. 36.

Extract from a dispatch from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, August 11, 1806.—Received August 13.

Paris, Aug. 11, 1806.

Sir,—In our last dispatch, of the 9th instant, we had the honour of informing you, that on that evening we had applied for passports to return to England, and also for a passport for a courier we intended to have dispatched immediately. We have only now to mention that, on Sunday at eleven o'clock, we sent the inclosure (marked A), renewing our demand; and that this morning, having received no answer to

either application, the inclosure (marked B) was sent to M. Talleyrand's house, Rue d'Anjou. The courier Basilico, who carried the note, returned soon after to inform us, that he was directed at M. Talleyrand's house to go to the Foreign Office, where he accordingly went, but was told that no communication would be received there till between twelve and one.

We then begged of Mr. Goddard to go himself to the Foreign Office, and deliver the letter: he found that the clerks had only just arrived, and that M. Talleyrand was gone to St. Cloud, not to return till four o'clock.

At half after five we received from Messrs. Clarke and de Champagny an official note (marked C). Immediately upon the receipt of this note, we wrote the inclosure (marked D) to M. Talleyrand, and received from him, at nine o'clock, an answer (marked E), which is also inclosed.

The inclosure (marked F) is the reply to the official note, which we intend to send the moment it can be copied.

Addition by the earl of Yarmouth.

As the French government has in every instance admitted the exactness of the communications made by me, I beg leave, in addition to this dispatch, to remark, that the intention expressed to me by the French government, as that which made them prefer communicating through my channel rather than on paper, was the expressing to his majesty's government their readiness to restore his majesty's German dominions *in toto*, but that for obvious reasons this could not be expressed on paper till every other condition of the treaty should be settled.

First

First inclosure (A).—Copy of a note from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to M. Talleyrand, dated August 10, 1806.—Given correctly in the *Moniteur*.

Second inclosure (B).—Copy of a note from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to M. Talleyrand, dated August 11, 1806.—Given correctly in the *Moniteur*.

Third inclosure (C).—Copy of a note from Messrs. Champagny and Clarke to the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated August 11, 1806.—Given correctly in the *Moniteur*.

Fourth inclosure (D).—Copy of a note from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to M. Talleyrand, dated August 11, 1806.—Correctly given in the *Moniteur*.

Fifth inclosure (E).—Copy of a note from M. Talleyrand to the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated August 11, 1806.—Correctly given in the *Moniteur*.

Sixth inclosure (F).—Copy of a note from the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth to Messrs. Champagny and Clarke, dated Aug. 11, 1806.—Correctly given in the *Moniteur*.

No. 37.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, Aug. 14, 1806.

Downing-street, Aug. 14, 1806.

My lord,—The messenger, Basilico, arrived here early this morning; with the dispatches with which your lordships had charged him; and though it appears most probable that before he can again reach Paris your lordships will be no longer there, yet, as there is still a possibility, from the last note from the French plenipotentiaries, that the negotiation may proceed on

the basis pointed out for it by your instructions, it has been judged proper that no time should be lost in re-dispatching him, in order that you may be apprised of his majesty's full approbation of the tenor of the different notes which have been delivered on your part since the earl of Lauderdale's arrival at Paris. As no other point but that of the general basis of negotiation has yet been brought into discussion, nothing need be added to the former instructions, by which the course of any further discussions that may take place is still to be entirely guided.

No. 38.

Copy of a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earls of Lauderdale and Yarmouth, dated Downing-street, Aug. 14, 1806.

Downing-street, Aug. 14, 1806.

My lords,—His majesty's servants have observed, from the dispatches received, that insinuations have been thrown out by the French government of a disposition on the part of this country to gain some unfair advantage by employing of two plenipotentiaries in the present discussions. That government has since taken the obvious mode of counteracting this advantage (if any such there was) by naming on its part also a second plenipotentiary. But the king's government is desirous, while it adheres steadily to the substance of those points which are thought fit to be insisted on for the honour and interest of his majesty's crown, to leave no pretence for cavils as to the form in which these discussions are carried on. The advantage which was to be looked to from the personal share which the earl of Yarmouth originally had in these transactions, as the bearer of the overtures

tures made by France, has now ceased; and, while his lordship has, on the one hand, properly recorded his decisive testimony as to the reality of these overtures, and as to the exact terms of peace so offered, the French government has, on the other hand, not only refused to adhere to those offers, but has expressly declared, that they never can even have entered into their thoughts. "*Jamais il n' a pu venir dans la pensée de sa majesté l'empereur des François, roi d'Italie, de prendre pour base de la négociation l'uti possidetis**."

In this state of things, the king's servants are not aware of any benefits that would be likely to result to his majesty's service from imposing on lord Yarmouth any further duty in this respect: nor do they wish that any such ground for cavil as I have before alluded to, however unfounded it would be, should be left to the enemy.

They have, therefore, submitted it as their humble address to his majesty, that, in case of the continuance of the negotiations, the French minister should be informed, that they will henceforth be conducted by the earl of Lauderdale alone, the earl of Yarmouth having obtained his majesty's gracious permission to return to England; but that his majesty does not, on his part, make any objection to lord Lauderdale's treating with both the persons who have been named by the French government for that trust:—A proof perfectly decisive, in all its parts, that no unfair advantage, such as the French government appears to apprehend,

can have been in the king's contemplation. I am, &c.

C. J. Fox.

No. 39 is not material; it merely informs Mr. Fox that lord Lauderdale had not received answers to the notes he had transmitted.

No. 40.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, Aug. 17, 1806.
—Received August 22.

Paris, Aug. 17, 1806.

Sir,—I take the opportunity of lord Yarmouth's return to England, to inform you, that in consequence of his majesty's pleasure signified in your dispatch of the 14th instant, I this morning wrote to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, stating to him that lord Yarmouth had his majesty's permission to return to England; and that his majesty had been graciously pleased, in the event of the negotiation proceeding, to continue the future management solely to me.

About eleven o'clock M. de Champagny and general Clarke paid me a visit of ceremony; lord Yarmouth happened to be with me at the time; and we mentioned to them the change that had taken place, and showed them the note which I was just about to dispatch, a copy of which is enclosed.

The object of the visit was merely to ask the plenipotentiaries, and the gentlemen attached to the mission, to dine with M. de Champagny tomorrow.

Nothing whatever was said that related to the negotiation, and I

* It never could have entered into the thoughts of his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, to take for the basis of the negotiation, the *uti possidetis*.

believe no answer will be given, either to the note of the 11th, or to the note sent to the minister for foreign affairs of the 14th, till the emperor's return from Rambouillet, which, they informed me to-day, was uncertain. The mode in which I have mentioned to the minister for foreign affairs his majesty's permission to lord Yarmouth to return to England, seemed to me calculated to afford as little opportunity as possible to the French government to cavil about a change of form in the mission.

I think it proper to add, that in doing this, every facility was afforded by lord Yarmouth, who in the handsomest manner desired me on this, as on other occasions, to consider only what I thought most advantageous for the public service.

I have the honour to be, &c.

LAUDERDALE.

Inclosure in No. 40.—Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated 17th Aug. 1806.—Given correctly in the *Moniteur*.

No. 41.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. secretary Fox to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Downing-street, August 23d, 1806.

Downing-street, August 23d, 1806.

My lord,—The contents of your last dispatches do not appear to require any particular answer, and this messenger is sent back only that you may be enabled to keep us regularly informed (so long as you shall still continue at Paris) of the state of the negotiation there.

If, on the arrival of any intelligence of the decision of Russia not to ratify without the consent of this court, the French

government should increase their offers, in order to separate his majesty from the emperor of Russia, your lordship is on all such occasions to observe, that it is M. d'Oubril's treaty alone that has released his majesty from the obligation not to separate in substance his treaty from that of Russia; an obligation to which his majesty had determined scrupulously to adhere, and from which, even in point of form, he had departed no further than he had learnt to be the wish of Russia herself.

Should, therefore, M. d'Oubril's treaty not be ratified, the two courts would revert to their former situation, with the additional bond of union which would result from the mutual proofs they would thus have afforded to each other of their resolution to adhere invariably to the spirit and principles of their alliance.

No. 42.

Copy of a dispatch from lord Lauderdale to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, Aug. 25, 1806.—Received September 3.

Paris, August 25, 1806.

Sir,—In my dispatch of the 16th instant, I had the honour of transmitting to you a copy of a letter sent by lord Yarmouth and myself, on the 14th instant, to the minister of foreign affairs.

I have now to inform you, that my desire to combine with firmness the utmost degree of forbearance, that appeared to me consistent with the character with which his majesty has been pleased to invest me, induced me patiently to suffer the silence of the French government, without remark, from the 14th till the 22d, when I transmitted to the minister for foreign affairs a note, of which I have the honour to inclose you a copy, marked (A).

No

No notice having been taken of this note by his excellency, I have this morning sent a second note, of which I have also the honour to inclose a copy, marked (B).

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

The right hon. C. J. Fox.

First inclosure (A).—Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Aug. 22, 1806.—Given correctly in the *Moniteur*.

Second inclosure (B).—Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Aug. 23, 1806.—Given correctly in the *Moniteur*.

No. 43.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Aug. 29, 1806.—Received Sept. 3.

Paris, Aug. 29.

Sir,—In my last dispatch, dated Aug. 25, I had the honour of stating to you the detail of the negotiation till the afternoon of that day. At eleven o'clock at night, I received from the plenipotentiaries of France a note, intimating their desire of having a conference on the subject of a note written by lord Yarmouth and myself on the 11th of the month. Of this, as well as of the answer agreeing to the proposal, I have the honour to enclose copies, marked (A and B).

On the 26th, at the hour appointed, I went to the office of the minister of the interior, where I found M. de Champagny and general Clarke, the two plenipotentiaries of the French government. The general result of what passed impressed me with a conviction that the French plenipotentiaries no longer thought of making peace

upon grounds which France was understood to desire it at the time of lord Yarmouth's communication; and I am confident that the part I bore in the discussion thoroughly satisfied them, that I was resolved firmly to adhere to the ground which I had taken in the note of the 11th, on which I was invited to hear their remarks.

The hour of dinner terminated our conference; the renewal of which, on any day I should name, was after dinner anxiously solicited by M. de Champagny. I objected to it, as apparently unnecessary, and only calculated to protract my stay in this country to no purpose; but, before I left him, expressed my willingness to comply once more with the wishes of the French plenipotentiaries, as a further mark of my anxiety to do any thing which even they could think had a tendency to produce that peace which his majesty was so anxious to accomplish on equitable terms; and another meeting was fixed to take place on Friday the 27th, at three o'clock.

On the 27th, after dinner, I had a very long conference with the minister for foreign affairs, the substance of which confirmed me in the opinion I had antecedently formed. In the course of this conference, the minister frequently alluded to the situation of Hanover, and stated, within eight and forty hours its fate must be determined for ever. He seemed much surprised that nothing appeared to make any impression on me, frequently repeating that in getting the Cape, Malta, and his majesty's Hanoverian dominions, I should make a glorious peace; and assuring me, that if this opportunity should be lost, he did not foresee

any means by which peace could be attained, as the emperor was determined to make war all his life, rather than yield any part of the territory of France, the integrity of which he had sworn to maintain.

Our conversation ended by my assuring him, at the time I was about to retire, that while these sentiments continued to prevail in this country, it was impossible peace should be made; and that, with the knowledge I now possessed of the opinions entertained by the French government, I could not acquit myself of trifling, if I should remain any longer to carry on what I must consider as a farce.

After a full consideration of all that has taken place, I have therefore, this morning, resolved to bring things to a point, by delivering to the plenipotentiaries of France the detailed note of which I inclose a copy (marked D).

I am, &c.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

First inclosure (A).—Copy of a note from Messrs. Champagny and Clarke to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Aug. 25, 1806.—Given in the *Moniteur*.

Second inclosure (B).—Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to Messrs. Champagny and Clarke, dated Aug. 25.—Given in the *Moniteur*.

Third inclosure (C).—Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Paris, August 27.—Merely states that his lordship agrees to have another conference.

Fourth inclosure (D).—Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to Messrs. Champagny and Clarke, dated Aug. 29.—Given in the *Moniteur*.

No. 44.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, August 30, 1806.—Received September 3.

Paris, Aug. 30, 1806.

Sir,—When I reflect on the contents of the dispatch I had the honour of making up for you yesterday, I cannot help anticipating the surprise with which you must receive the intelligence, that I am now under an engagement to renew the conference with the plenipotentiaries of France, on Thursday the 4th of September.

On going yesterday, at three o'clock, to the office of the minister of the interior, I confess I did not foresee the possibility of any thing occurring that could prevent my executing the resolution I had formed, of demanding passports this morning, and of returning immediately to England. I trust I need scarcely assure you, that I have as strong an impression as any man can have, of the bad consequences that may attend exhibiting any thing which looks like versatility of conduct; and yet, under the circumstances in which I found myself placed, I am satisfied I had no choice, and that I could not refuse, with propriety, the solicitations of the French plenipotentiaries to renew the conference.

At the commencement of our interview, I perceived a disposition to greater cordiality than I had hitherto experienced. To M. de Champagny's inquiry, whether they had been fortunate enough by what they had said to induce me to deliver the project of a treaty, I answered by recalling to his recollection the reasons I had formerly

merly stated for declining such a proceeding, till the basis that had originally been proposed was again formally recognised ; and I informed him, that, in order to give them an accurate view of my conception of the subject, I had prepared a note which I wished to submit to them, delivering to them the note, a copy of which I had the honour of inclosing in my dispatch of August 29.

After reading this note, and observing in general that they did not know whether, if we should come to a particular explanation, we might not arrive at a conclusion coincident in its effects with the object I had in view ; when I insisted on the general principle, they entered into a detail with respect to the necessity of some immediate determination on the subject of Hanover, and afterwards stated their views as to the French possessions in the East Indies, the Dutch colonies, St. Lucie, and Tobago ; on all of which, they talked in a style so perfectly different from any thing I had before heard, that I should not be more surprised if, at our next conference, they were to give them up, than I was at the change of tone manifested on this occasion.

A great deal more passed in the way of general conversation, all of which tended to show me, that, although they were still at a wide distance from such terms as I could accede to, they had wonderfully relaxed from the tone they had antecedently assumed.

M. de Champagny then invited me to name a day for resuming our conference. To this, I decidedly objected, admitting, at the same time, that they had made concessions in the course of our discussion ; but adding, that they

were still so far from agreeing to admit what the English government uniformly conceived the original proposition to have conveyed, that I could not yet indulge any hopes of our coming to an agreement, and should therefore feel it necessary to terminate my mission.

M. de Champagny asked me with some warmth, whether I wished for peace on the terms which I myself had stated ? Whether I thought myself authorised, after the concessions they had just made, to refuse them time to consider how much further they might go ? and whether I might not reasonably entertain hopes that, with a little time, the differences which appeared now to separate us, might vanish ?

On receiving such a remonstrance, I thought it impossible not to agree to a renewal of the conference ; and, after some conversation, Thursday was fixed for the day of our meeting.

No. 45.

Extract from a dispatch from earl Spencer to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Downing-street, September 4, 1806.

Downing-street, Sept. 4, 1806.

My lord,---I am commanded by his majesty to inform your lordship, that he is pleased to approve entirely the conduct you held in the circumstances detailed in your last dispatches, and to express his majesty's satisfaction in the good effect which appears to have resulted from it.

It is proper, however, to remark, that as the French plenipotentiaries have not bound themselves as yet by written note, nor have even in conversation agreed to replace the negotiation

negotiation upon its true basis, the present appearances of grèater facility on their part, may probably arise only from their desire of keeping your lordship at Paris till the answer from Petersburg shall be received; an object which your lordship's last note had shown them they could no longer accomplish, without some departure from the ground on which they have hitherto stood.

If the Russian treaty shall not be ratified, his majesty is then (as I have already observed to your lordship) replaced, with respect to the emperor of Russia, in the same situation as before the signature of M. d'Oubril's treaty; but with the additional tie which the two courts would in that case feel, from the fresh proofs each will have given to the other of a steady adherence to the system of alliance; and it will then be necessary that our peace shall be so far made dependant on that of Russia as is pointed out in the instructions originally given to lord Yarmouth.

Since the above was written, we have received the important intelligence contained in the indorsed papers*, copies of which I have thought it necessary to forward to you, without a moment's delay, for your information; the case is already provided for in this dispatch; and in the present state of our information on the subject, I have nothing to add to what is above stated. A few days will now probably put us in possession of the further views and intentions of Russia, to which reference must of course be had in every succeeding stage of the negotiation; and as I

shall lose no time in transmitting to your lordship such fresh instructions as these may give rise to, so we shall be anxious to hear, as soon as possible, from you, what effect this event may produce on the disposition of the French government.

No. 46.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to Mr. sec. Fox, dated Paris, Sept. 4, 1806.
Received Sept. 7.

Paris, Sept. 4, 1806.

Sir,---In my last dispatch I informed you, that in consequence of the solicitations of the plenipotentiaries of France, urged in the manner I there stated to you, I had consented to a renewal of the conference this day at three o'clock.

About half past two I received from M. Talleyrand a note, a copy of which, marked A, as well as of my answer, marked B, I now inclose.

On going to M. Talleyrand's office, I found him just returned from St. Cloud. He began by informing me, that till yesterday they had received no certain information from Petersburg; but that the courier who arrived last night, had brought intelligence that the emperor had positively refused to ratify the treaty. He stated that he had the emperor's orders to say, that this change in circumstances would certainly induce him to make peace with England on more favourable terms than he would otherwise have at present consented to; and further to declare, that as he would find it necessary to give

* Intelligence of the refusal of the emperor of Russia to ratify M. d'Oubril's treaty.

to his plenipotentiaries new instructions, so he thought it proper to communicate this to me, that I might write to my court to receive also such further instructions as they might think proper to give.

In answer to a question which I asked,---whether there was any reason to expect the arrival of any minister to renew the negotiation on the part of Russia,---he said that no information on that subject had been received. On taking leave I assured M. Talleyrand that I should report to you the apparent openness with which the communication had been made, and that I should dispatch a courier this evening with the information.

First inclosure (A).---Copy of a note from M. Talleyrand to the earl of Lauderdale, dated September 4th, 1806.

Paris, 4th Sept. 1806.

The minister for foreign affairs has received the orders of his majesty the emperor and king, to hold a conference this day with his excellency lord Lauderdale. He has therefore the honour to propose to his excellency to call at the office for foreign affairs at half past two. He begs him to accept the assurance of his high consideration.

Second inclosure (B).---Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Sept. 4, 1806.

Paris, Sept. 4, 1806.---Half past two, P. M.

Lord Lauderdale has this instant received the note dated the 4th September, by which his excellency the minister for foreign affairs proposes to lord Lauderdale a conference at his excellency's office this day at half past two o'clock.

This invitation was not delivered

at lord Lauderdale's hotel till half past two, the time specified for the conference: but lord Lauderdale will have great pleasure in waiting upon his excellency in a quarter of an hour at furthest.

No. 47.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Paris, Sept. 7, 1806.---Received Sept. 11.---This merely requires fresh instructions.

No. 48.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. secretary Windham to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Downing-street, Sept. 10, 1806.

Downing-street, Sept. 10, 1806.

My lord,---Your lordship's dispatch of Sept. 4, has not failed to engage his majesty's most serious attention. The language held by M. Talleyrand appears directed to the object of engaging his majesty in a separate negotiation, to the exclusion of Russia; but the interests both of this country and of Europe have always been considered here as essentially connected with the maintenance of the strictest union of councils and measures between his majesty and the emperor of Russia. It was with deep regret that his majesty saw the apparent violation of this principle in the separate treaty signed by M. d'Oubril; and he cannot but consider the steady and upright conduct of the emperor of Russia, on that trying occasion, as imposing on his majesty a fresh obligation not to separate his interests from those of so honourable and faithful an ally.

Your lordship must therefore, in the first place, represent to the French government, that the refusal to ratify M. d'Oubril's treaty,

has

has replaced the two courts in their former state of close and intimate alliance; and that any attempt on the part of France to separate them must henceforth be considered as hopeless.—She can now form no expectation that she can conclude peace with either of them, until the negotiation with the other shall be brought to the same conclusion.

With respect to the separate interests of Great Britain, his majesty adheres to the basis originally proposed to him by France, and on which your lordship had so often had occasion to insist, that of the *uti possidetis*, for the two powers and their allies in all parts of the world, with the single exception of Hanover, as having been originally attacked on grounds which cannot be defended.

This is the offer of France as originally made to his majesty; it is the demand on which his majesty still thought fit to insist, when apparently abandoned by Russia; and his majesty has no desire of increasing it under circumstances which, according to the avowal of France herself, entitle his majesty to expect more favourable conditions than France has lately been inclined to accede to. The *uti possidetis* thus described must, however, now necessity include the kingdom of Sicily.

Every endeavour was made in the outset of the negotiation to obtain the restitution of Naples to his Sicilian majesty; and the grounds on which it was thought fit finally to desist from that claim on the part of his majesty, are detailed in the correspondence of this office with lord Yarmouth and your lordship.

No. 49.

Extract of a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to earl Spencer, 1806.

dated Paris, Sept. 18, 1806.—
Received Sept. 22.

Paris, Sept. 18, 1806.

My lord,—I had the honour of receiving the dispatch, signed by Mr. secretary Windham, dated September 10, late in the evening of Friday last.

Unfortunately I had a slight degree of fever for four days preceding, and I was never more unfit than on Saturday morning to attend to business of such magnitude.

On considering the instructions contained in the dispatch with all the attention I could, they appeared to me to relate to two distinct subjects: first, to the form and manner in which his majesty thought proper that I should conduct the negotiation; secondly, to the terms which, under the present circumstances of the two countries, it is proper to ask.

To this distinction I conceive it to be the more necessary for me to attend, because I thought it regular and proper to address what I had to say on the first point to the minister of foreign affairs. Whereas the plenipotentiaries of France, should the government authorise them to proceed, seemed the proper channel of communication on the second.

In pursuance of this idea, I immediately wrote a note, a copy of which (marked A) I inclose, addressed to M. Talleyrand, which I sent by Mr. Goddard in the evening, as I was myself confined to bed.

On Monday, about five o'clock, M. Talleyrand called; and though I was very ill at the time, I resolved to admit him. He sat upwards of half an hour. The outline of his conversation consisted in his expressing a desire to have a

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full

full communication with me, in his assuring me that if the difficulties, in respect of form, could be got over, he did not think the objections to the terms would be material, and that, where peace was seriously in view, as it was with them, it figured as an object of such importance, as to give a disposition to accommodate about conditions:—in a word, that he had little doubt that he and I would arrange the business.

On my part, I stated, that I was afraid he proceeded on the supposition that I might give way in some of the points in question, which I thought it fair to assure him at once was impossible. I stated to him generally the demands I was to make on the part of England, which would no way vary from the terms we had originally understood to have been proposed; and that he must expect I would be as positive in relation to the conditions for Russia, with which he was acquainted, as I should be with respect to any point more peculiarly of British interest. I then thought it right to introduce the subject of my having no powers from Russia, observing, that although there might be some irregularity in the mode of proceeding, yet that, under all the circumstances of the present case, it seemed unavoidable, because the principles and feelings of his majesty would never permit him to think of treating, but in such a manner as might ensure to the court of Petersburg an honourable peace, at the moment that peace should be concluded between England and France; and that unless I could be allowed to state the objects of Russia, this could hardly be effected.

He assured me that they would waive all objections with regard to

form, and that they would be perfectly ready to hear me on the subject of a treaty of peace with Russia; his objection to my proposal being founded, not on the circumstance of my wanting powers from Russia, but on the very unusual proposal of concluding a treaty, which, when signed, was only to take place in a certain event. I mentioned to him that the same thing had been done at Paris in 1782, when Mr. Oswald concluded a treaty of peace with Dr. Franklin and Mr. Adams.

During the whole of this conversation, I had gone even out of my way to repeat to him the necessity of his laying his account with my adhering rigidly to the terms I had detailed; and yet he left me with such expressions as could not fail to create a belief that he intended to accede to my propositions.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

First inclosure (A).

Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Sept. 13, 1806.

Paris, Sept. 13, 1806.

The undersigned, plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty, lost no time in transmitting to his court the communication which his excellency the minister for foreign affairs made to him on Thursday, the 4th instant; and he now hastens to reply to that communication, by informing his excellency of the line of conduct his majesty has thought proper to direct him to pursue under the present circumstances.

His Britannic majesty, ever anxious to maintain the intimate connection and alliance which subsist between his majesty and the emperor of all the Russias, naturally finds in the recent conduct of his
illus-

illustrious ally, and in the proofs which he has lately afforded of the interest which he takes in the welfare of Great Britain and in the general happiness of Europe, additional motives not to separate, in any case, his interests from those of the court of St. Petersburg.

It is not, however, the intention of his majesty to carry this principle further than the earl of Yarmouth was instructed to carry it by Mr. Fox, in his lordship's communications with the French government. There is nothing to prevent the interests of Great Britain and of France from being treated separately; only his majesty does not authorise the undersigned to sign any treaty except provisionally; such treaty not to have its full effect until peace shall have been concluded between that faithful ally of Great Britain and France. It is upon these conditions alone that the undersigned is at present authorised to negotiate.

The undersigned has orders to add, that his Britannic majesty, fully acquainted with the desire entertained by the court of St. Petersburg for peace upon conditions reciprocally honourable and advantageous, and at the same time compatible with the interests of Europe, has authorised him to impart to the French plenipotentiaries the conditions upon which Russia (according to the full and perfect knowledge his Britannic majesty has of the intentions of that court) would be willing to negotiate with the French government; to reduce them into the form of a treaty, in the event of their being agreed to on both sides; and to insert an article in the provisional treaty between Great Britain and France, by which his Britannic majesty should engage to employ his mediation,

for the purpose of obtaining the accession of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias to the said treaty.

Inclosures (B) and (C) — Are notes from lord Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, relating chiefly to his lordship's indisposition.

Fourth inclosure (D) — Copy of a note from M. Talleyrand to the earl of Lauderdale, dated September 17, 1806, merely mentioning the arrival of a messenger at Boulogne, with the account of the death of Mr. Fox, and of lord Spencer being provisionally appointed his successor.

Fifth inclosure (E) — A mere note from lord Lauderdale with respect to a proposed conference.

Sixth inclosure (F) — A short note of form from M. Talleyrand relative to lord Lauderdale's indisposition.

The undersigned is aware that he ought to make the official communication of the conditions to the French plenipotentiaries. In the mean time, and for the satisfaction of the minister for foreign affairs, he has no difficulty in telling him that they will be in substance the same as those which have already been communicated to his excellency by his excellency baron de Budberg.

The undersigned expects with great impatience the answer to this communication, which his excellency the minister for foreign affairs will have the goodness to send in writing. It is the more necessary for him to receive it in that form, as his court has remarked that the communications the undersigned has already made have frequently remained without a written answer.

The undersigned has the honour to renew to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, the assurance of his high consideration.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

No. 50.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to earl Spencer, dated Paris, Sept. 19, 1806.—Received Sept. 22.

Paris, Sept. 19, 1806.

My lord,—At one o'clock this day monsieur Talleyrand called on me, according to the appointment which I announced to your lordship in my last dispatch. I immediately perceived that his plan was to exhibit extreme civility, which no one knows better how to execute.

After some time spent in compliments, and in condolence on the great loss the world had sustained, he told me, that as I insisted on an answer in writing, one was prepared, which contained a declaration consonant to what he supposed me to wish on the two most material points. First, that the emperor was willing to admit of an article being introduced to answer the objects I had in view in relation to Russia, and to instruct his plenipotentiaries to hear me with respect to the interests of that power. Secondly, that France would be ready to make concessions for the purpose of obtaining peace.

After some conversation, all tending to impress me with the idea that peace was their main object, and that they were even ready to make any sacrifice to secure it, he produced the paper to which he had alluded (marked A.), and which I had at first understood he meant to transmit to me when he should go home.

Before he opened it, he looked at me, and said, that there was a

mixture in it of what, perhaps, I should not like, but that I must take the evil with the good. He begged that I would allow him to read it through without interrupting him. When he had finished, I said that I should of course send such an answer as I thought becoming and proper. I told him, and I trust with perfect temper and seeming indifference, that the most important thing for me to know was, whether these concessions would be to the extent of allowing us to retain what they had originally proposed? He answered, that the emperor would leave every thing open to the plenipotentiaries.

On his going away, I felt myself so extremely fatigued, in consequence of the weak state in which my late illness has left me, that I was obliged to lie down and recruit my strength before I could turn my mind to the formation of what I conceived to be a proper answer to his note. I trust your lordship will approve of the answer I have sent, a copy of which I have the honour of inclosing (marked B). My object in framing it, was to facilitate as much as possible the immediate progress of the negotiation, and at the same time to let the government of France feel that I was alive to what, in point of dignity, belonged to the plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty.—I have, &c.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

First Inclosure (A.)—Translation.

Copy of a note delivered by M. Talleyrand to the earl of Lauderdale, dated September 18, 1806.

Paris, September 18, 1806:

The undersigned, the minister for foreign affairs, has laid before his majesty the emperor, king of Italy,

Italy, the note which his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, minister plenipotentiary from his Britannic majesty, did him the honour to address to him on the 13th of this month.

His majesty the emperor and king sees with regret that the negotiation seems to take every day a retrograde course, and he is at a loss to discover what point the English government wish to attain.

In the first instance, obsolete forms were brought forward and urged for our acceptance, the text and the substance of which had never been admitted, nor even discussed, by the French government; and when this difficulty appeared to be removed, and the French plenipotentiaries held out a prospect of sacrifices which proved more and more the desire of the government for peace, points antecedent to the negotiation were recurring to, and a question was started again which had been three times decided; first, by the powers given to M. d'Oubril, with which his Britannic majesty's plenipotentiaries were acquainted; afterwards, by the powers given to the earl of Yarmouth; and lastly, for the third time, by those of the earl of Lauderdale. One might have supposed that a discussion, terminated before the first conference of the respective negotiators, and decided even by the very fact of their negotiation, would not again be brought forward.

His majesty the emperor wishing, however, to give a fresh proof of his uniform desire for the re-establishment of peace, adheres to the following proposal; that the negotiations between France and England shall continue; that the minister plenipotentiary of his majesty the king of Great Britain shall

be at liberty to introduce into the treaty, either as a public or secret article, or in any other form which would answer the same end, whatever he may conceive would tend to reconcile the existing differences between France and Russia, and would procure for the latter a participation in the benefits of peace; it being well understood, that no proposals shall be admitted except such as are respectively honourable, and are not injurious to the real power and the dignity of the two empires; and that we shall not see again brought forward the extraordinary proposals which M. de Novosiltzoff was charged to make on the part of Russia, and which, having marked the origin of a coalition conquered and destroyed in its birth, ought equally to be forgotten with the coalition itself. There are proposals which, being only the result of blind confidence, and of a species of infatuation, and being founded neither on the real force of the parties, nor on their geographical situation, are deprived of a pacific character, and carry with them their own condemnation.

France ought neither to abandon the interests of the Ottoman empire, nor a position which enables her to sustain that empire against the aggressions with which she is openly menaced by Russia; but as all the objects destined to enter into the arrangements of the treaty must be reserved for discussion, the undersigned will not seek to anticipate the result which it may produce.

If, after the changes which have taken place in the cabinet of his Britannic majesty, peace is still wished for in England, peace may be made, and that without delay. The emperor will not hesitate to make some sacrifices in order to

accelerate it, and to render it durable; but if the dispositions for peace should have changed in London, if the wise and liberal views manifested in the first communications which took place with the illustrious minister, whom both nations lament, should no longer prevail, a vague discussion, immoderate pretensions, and ambiguous proposals, wide of that tone of frankness and dignity necessary to conduce to a real conciliation, would only have the effect of producing more irritation, and would be unworthy of both nations. France does not pretend to dictate either to Russia or to England, but she will be dictated to by neither of these powers. Let the conditions be equal, just, and moderate, and the peace is concluded; but if an imperious and exaggerating disposition is evinced, if pre-eminence is affected, if, in a word, it is meant to dictate peace, the emperor and the French people will not even notice these proposals. Confiding in themselves, they will say, as a nation of antiquity answered its enemies, "You demand our arms, come and take them."

The undersigned, minister for foreign affairs, has the honour to renew to his excellency the earl of Lauderdale the assurance of his high consideration.

(Signed) C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.
Second Inclosure (B.)

Copy of a note from lord Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Sept. 19, 1806.

(Translation.)

Paris, Sept. 19, 1806.

The undersigned plenipotentiary of his majesty the king of Great Britain, in answering the official note of his excellency the minister

for foreign affairs, dated the 18th instant, which has been received to-day, begins by remarking, that he purposely abstains as much as possible from all observation upon those points contained in it, which are foreign to the immediate object in question. By this means, he will avoid discussions of a nature to lead him to forget that tone of moderation which it is his duty to observe in the whole course of his mission. He will thus maintain the line of conduct which is conformable to that love of peace, which characterises all the proceedings of the king his master.

When the undersigned reflects, that he came to Paris, authorised to conclude peace upon terms understood to have been proposed by France; that notwithstanding the refusal of his imperial majesty of all the Russias to ratify the treaty signed by M. d'Oubril, and the splendid successes obtained by his majesty's arms in Spanish America, he was authorised to give assurance (as he had the honour of doing to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs) that the demands of his court in its own favour would not in consequence of these successes be materially increased; the undersigned had reason to be surprised at finding his government charged with manifesting "an imperious and exaggerating disposition." He is not less astonished, that his excellency, in replying to a note in which lord Lauderdale had the honour of explaining distinctly to him, that the conditions pointed out by his excellency baron de Budberg were in substance what would be insisted upon by Great Britain in favour of Russia, should have thought it necessary to reprobate so strongly conditions proposed by M. de Novosiltzoff under

under totally different circumstances, and of the nature of which the undersigned is entirely ignorant.

Nevertheless, after the explanations given by the undersigned to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, and the declaration made by him to his excellency, that the undersigned is not authorised to negotiate otherwise than so as to insure the conclusion of a peace with Great Britain and with Russia at the same moment; and, after having received, in the official note of yesterday's date, assurances that the French government does not refuse the admission of an article, the design of which shall be to provide for this indispensable object, the undersigned will make no difficulty in resuming the conferences with their excellencies the French plenipotentiaries, as soon as their excellencies shall be duly authorised for this purpose.

The undersigned has the
honour to be,
LAUDERDALE.

No. 51.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to earl Spencer, dated Paris, September 26, 1806.---Received September 28.

Nothing material happened after the conference with M. Talleyrand which I detailed in my dispatch of the 19th instant, till the 22d, when I received from him a communication, informing me that the emperor having thought general Clarke's services near his person necessary in a journey he was about to undertake immediately, M. de Champagny would be instructed to conduct singly, on the part of France, the business of the negotiation in future.

This communication was made in a letter which I inclose (marked A.), together with a copy of my answer (marked B.).

On the 23d, being anxious that the negotiation should proceed as soon as possible, I took the opportunity of M. de Champagny's sending to inquire after my health, to urge him, in writing, to renew the conferences without further loss of time. Your lordship will find a copy of my letter (marked C.), together with his answer (marked D.) inclosed.

On the 24th I received from M. Talleyrand an answer to the demand I had made for an explanation on the subject of passports, in my letter of the 22d. This communication (marked E.) I think it also proper to transmit to your lordship.

On the 25th, at one o'clock, M. de Champagny called on me, as had been previously agreed, for the purpose of renewing the conferences.

After the usual interchange of civilities, he proceeded to say, that, to secure peace, the emperor had determined to make great sacrifices.

1st, That Hanover with its dependencies should be restored to his majesty.

2d, That the possession of Malta should be confirmed to Great Britain.

3d, That France would interfere with Holland to confirm to his majesty the absolute possession of the Cape.

4th, That the emperor would confirm to his majesty the possession of Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Mahee, and the other dependent comptoirs.

5th, That as Tobago was originally settled by the English, it was
(P 4) meant

meant also to give that island to the crown of Great Britain.

To all this he added, that what he had now said proceeded on the supposition, that Sicily was to be ceded, and that the French government proposed that his Sicilian majesty should have as indemnity, not only the Balearic Islands, but should also receive an annuity from the court of Spain to enable him to support his dignity.

I here interrupted him, expressing my surprise, after the full explanation I had had with M. Talleyrand on that very point, that the possibility of our giving up Sicily should be mentioned again; that the guarantee of it to the king of the two Sicilies was as much an object with England as M. Talleyrand knew it to be with Russia; and that I was happy to take that opportunity of stating to him fairly, that I felt myself bound to consider the obtaining for Russia the arrangement which she desired, as an object more interesting if possible to England, than those points which might be considered as peculiarly connected with her own interests.

He informed me, that there was no clause in his instructions empowering him to hear me on the part of Russia; but that he had even seen M. Talleyrand's note to me; and being satisfied that this was an accidental omission, which would be forthwith remedied, he had no objection to proceed, as if such a clause had been inserted.

It was agreed that I should go to him to-day, at two o'clock, to renew the conference.

First inclosure (A.)—Is a copy of a note from M. Talleyrand to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Sept. 22, 1806, within alluded to.

Second inclosure (B.)—Is a copy of a note from the earl of Lau-

dale to M. Talleyrand, dated Sept. 22, 1806, in answer to the preceding.

Third inclosure (C.)—Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. de Champagny, dated Sept. 23, 1806, within alluded to.

Fourth inclosure (D.)—Copy of a note from M. de Champagny to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Sept. 23, 1806.

No. 52.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to earl Spencer, dated at Paris, Sept. 16, 1806.
—Received Sept. 28.

Paris, Sept. 16, 1806.

My lord,---In conformity with my engagement made yesterday, which I had the honour of mentioning to your lordship in my former dispatch of this date, I waited on M. de Champagny this afternoon at two o'clock.

He informed me that the accidental omission in his instructions had been remedied, and that he had now powers to talk with me on the interests of Russia, with a view to arrange the conditions on which France would make peace with that country: but he, at the same time, proposed, that we should, in the first instance, talk over the terms of peace between France and England.

I observed, that as the greatest difficulties in our last conference seemed to arise from the conditions that I had proposed as necessary to be granted to Russia; and as England was resolved not to make peace without obtaining for Russia all the objects on which she insisted, I thought the more natural order would be, to resume our conversation on these last topics.

A long discussion accordingly ensued, which ended in his informing me, that on the subject of concessions to Russia, he was authorised

rised to communicate to me, that the government of France was willing, in addition to the treaty made by M. d'Oubril, to cede to that power the full sovereignty of the island of Corfu: but that he had no authority to go any further.

I then informed him, that I was sorry to learn that the negotiation was at an end, for that my instructions were precise, and that I should feel it my duty, the moment I left him, to state to M. Talleyrand, that all hopes having vanished of bringing the negotiation to a favourable issue, I had only now to request passports for my return to England.

After strong expressions of mutual regard, he attended me to the outer room, where he again proposed a renewal of our conferences in case his government should give him new instructions.

My answer was, that I had no choice in immediately applying for passports; but that as long as I remained in this country, I never would refuse to see him; and that if, before my departure, he would come with powers to grant all the objects on which I had explained myself, I should feel the greatest satisfaction, though, at the moment, I thought my appointment perfectly unnecessary.

On my return home, I sent to M. Talleyrand a letter demanding my passports, a copy of which (marked A.) I inclose; and I understand from the courier Basilico, that he received it ten minutes before he got into his carriage to go to Mentz.

About six o'clock I received from M. de Champagny a note, of which, as well as of my answer, I inclose copies to your lordship (marked B. and C.).

Whilst I am writing, I have re-

ceived the note, which I inclose (marked D). I have, &c.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

I open this dispatch to inclose a note (marked E.) I have this moment received from M. de Champagny.

First inclosure (A).

Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Sept. 26th, 1806, demanding passports.

Second inclosure (B.) is a copy of a note from M. de Champagny to the earl of Lauderdale, dated September 26th, 1806, respecting another conference.

Third inclosure (C.) is a copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. de Champagny, dated Sept. 26th 1806, appointing the following Monday.

Fourth inclosure (D.) is a copy of a note from M. d'Hauterive to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Sept. 26th, 1806.

(Translation.)

Paris, Sept. 26, 1806.

My lord,—I have this moment received a letter from you for the prince of Benevento. He is this instant set out, and I embrace the opportunity offered by the departure of one of his suite, whose carriage will follow him immediately, to forward it to the prince of Benevento; it will probably reach him on the road, but at all events on his arrival at Mentz.

I beg your excellency will accept the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) HAUTERIVE.

(No. 53.)

Extract from a dispatch from viscount

count Howick to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Downing-street, Oct. 1, 1806.

Downing-street, Oct. 1, 1806.

My lord,—Your dispatches of the 26th ult. brought by the messenger Johnson, have been laid before the king.

His majesty has seen with great regret, that, after more than six months spent in negotiation, the French government still hesitates upon the admission of points constantly urged by his majesty as the only grounds on which he could consent to peace, and that in so unsatisfactory a state of things, the chief of that government, together with his principal minister, has suddenly left Paris*, creating thereby new obstacles to the progress of the negotiation.

Whatever views the French government may have in keeping up this state of suspense and uncertainty, his majesty feels that it is equally prejudicial to the interests of his subjects and to those of Europe. If the professions of France are sincere, there can be no reason why she should not give a plain and decisive answer to demands which have been so long under consideration; and the time is now come when such an answer must be required as indispensable to your continuance at Paris.

No. 54.

Extract from a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to viscount Howick, dated Paris, Oct. 4, 1806.—Received October 6.

Paris, October 4, 1806.

My lord,—Yesterday, at four

o'clock, M. de Champagny sent me a note to announce the arrival of a courier at Boulogne, who reached Paris this morning at three o'clock.

On reading your lordship's dispatch, dated Oct. 1, it appeared to me that his majesty had been pleased to approve of the demand of passports which I had made.

Your lordship may depend on my pressing for them with the utmost possible earnestness and assiduity; but how soon I may be able to succeed, it is impossible for me, under the peculiar circumstances of the case, to prophesy.

No. 55.

Copy of a dispatch from the earl of Lauderdale to viscount Howick, dated Paris, October 6, 1806.—Received October 8.

My lord,—Late last night, M. de Champagny's principal secretary called upon me with a letter from him, inclosing a letter from M. Talleyrand, both of which I have the honour of transmitting to your lordship (marked A. and B).

From these your lordship will perceive, that the negotiation is now at an end, and that M. de Champagny has been authorised to give the passports I required.

I have this day accordingly renewed my demand to him in a letter, a copy of which I inclose (marked C).

On considering M. Talleyrand's note, it seemed to me necessary, that I should not take the step of asking my passports from M. de Champagny, without accompanying my demand with a reply to some of the observations made by

* The chief of the French government left Paris on the night of the 24th of September, and was followed by M. Talleyrand on the 26th.

the minister for foreign affairs. Your lordship will accordingly find inclosed a copy (marked D.) of an official note addressed by me to that minister.

I have sent the courier, Lyell, for the purpose of conveying this information, and I have given him a letter to admiral Holloway, desiring him instantly to announce by the telegraph, that I shall leave Paris on Thursday morning.

I have taken this step, because it occurred to me that government being thus in possession of the intelligence, that the negotiation is at an end, ten hours before it can reach London, they may have it in their power to take the most prudent means to make the fact public. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

First inclosure, (A.)—(Translation.)

Copy of a note from M. de Champagny to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Oct. 5, 1806.

Paris, Oct. 5, 1806.

M. de Champagny has the honour to transmit to his excellency the earl of Lauderdale the accompanying dispatch addressed to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs. He is also charged to inform him, that he is now authorised to deliver to him the passports which he has demanded. This, of all the duties which he had to discharge towards his excellency, is the only one which will have appeared painful to him; and it will be greatly so. He waits to be informed of the further dispositions of his excellency.

M. de Champagny begs lord Lauderdale to accept the assurances of his high consideration.

CHAMPAGNY.

Second inclosure (B.)—(Translation).

Copy of a letter from M. Talleyrand to the earl of Lauderdale, dated Mentz, Oct. 1, 1806.

The undersigned, minister for foreign affairs, has laid before his majesty the emperor, king of Italy, the note which his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, minister plenipotentiary from his Britannic majesty, did him the honour to address to him on the 26th of this month.

His majesty, after having from a desire of peace listened to every proposition which could have rendered it durable, and of reciprocal advantage to the two contracting powers and to their allies, will see with pain the rupture of a negotiation, to which his own disposition had led him to hope a more favourable conclusion. If the English cabinet is resolved to forgo the prospect of a peace, and if his Britannic majesty's minister plenipotentiary must depart from France, his majesty still flatters himself that the English cabinet and lord Lauderdale will, when they shall measure the extent of the sacrifices which he was disposed to make, in order to facilitate the return of a sincere reconciliation, be convinced that his majesty, in order to promote the happiness of the world, would not hesitate between any advantages in comparison with those to be expected from peace, and that the desire to ensure its benefits to his people, could alone have determined his paternal heart to make sacrifices not only of self-love but of power, more considerable than even the opinion of the English nation could have pointed out in the midst of a war, in which he had obtained constant advantages without

without any mixture of reverse. If, however, it is the destiny of the emperor and of the French nation still to live in the midst of the wars and tumults which the policy and influence of England have raised, his majesty having done every thing to put a stop to the calamities of war, finding himself deceived in his dearest hopes, relies on the justice of his cause, on the courage, the affection, the power of his people. At the same time calling to mind the dispositions which he has ever expressed throughout the negotiation, his majesty cannot see but with regret, that England, who might have strengthened and confirmed her vast power by the blessings of peace, the want of which is felt by the present generation, and by the English people as well as all others, willingly suffers the most favourable opportunity of concluding it to pass by: the event will disclose whether a new coalition will be more disadvantageous to France than those which have preceded it. The event will also disclose, whether those who complain of the grandeur and ambition of France should not impute to their own hatred and injustice this very grandeur and ambition of which they accuse her. The power of France has only been increased by the reiterated efforts to oppress her. Nevertheless, whatever inferences for the future may be drawn from the examples of the past, his majesty will be ready, should the negotiations with England be broken off, to renew them in the midst of any events. He will be ready to replace them on the basis laid in concert with the illustrious minister whom England has lost, who, having nothing to add to his glory, except the reconciliation of the two nations, had conceived the hope of

accomplishing it, but was snatched from the world in the midst of his work.

The undersigned has the honour to inform his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, that M. de Champaign has been authorised to deliver to him the passports which he has demanded.

The undersigned is desirous of renewing to his excellency the earl of Lauderdale, the assurance of his high consideration.

(Signed) C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Third inclosure (C.) is a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Champagny, dated Oct. 6, 1806.

Fourth inclosure (D.) Translation.)
Copy of a note from the earl of Lauderdale to M. Talleyrand, dated Oct. 6, 1806.

Paris, 6th Oct. 1806.

The undersigned, minister plenipotentiary of his Britannic majesty, received late last night the note which his excellency the minister for foreign affairs did him the honour to address to him on the first of this month.

The undersigned, learning that his excellency M. de Champagny is authorised to grant him the passports which he has demanded, and which he is on the point of receiving, cannot refrain from observing to his excellency the minister for foreign affairs, in answer to his note, that he has some difficulty in imagining from what circumstances his excellency has been able to infer, "that the British government have resolved to forgo the prospect of peace."

The undersigned was sent to France to negotiate a peace, at a time when the illustrious minister to whom his excellency has paid so just a tribute of praise, presided over the

department for foreign affairs. This great man then acted under the full conviction, that he had received from France an offer of peace on the basis of *uti possidetis*, with the sole exception of Hanover and of its dependencies in favour of his Britannic majesty. And notwithstanding the success of the arms of his Britannic majesty as well in Italy as on the continent of South America, and the refusal of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias to ratify that treaty, which in the eyes of the French government was equivalent to the most splendid victory, not one new proposition has been advanced on the part of his majesty, incompatible with the principle which was at first proposed by the French government, through the channel of the earl of Yarmouth, as the basis of the negotiation. It is not surely from such conduct that the inference can be drawn, "that the British government have resolved to forgo the prospect of a peace."

Are the conditions which the undersigned was ordered to propose as the basis of a peace between his majesty the emperor of all the Russias and the French government more of a nature to have given rise to this suspicion? Quite the reverse. If a solid and durable peace was the object of the two powers, these were such conditions as justice and expediency demanded: justice, because certainly nothing could be more equitable than to grant to his Sicilian majesty and to the king of Sardinia a compensation for their immense losses on the continent: expediency, because in order to ensure the duration of peace, such an arrangement of boundaries as may prevent disputes must always be preferable to that which furnishes to one of the

parties the means and the advantages of attack. It was on this principle that the proposed evacuation of Dalmatia and Albania, by the French troops, naturally suggested itself.

If, therefore, the undersigned has received orders to demand his passports, and to depart from France, it is certainly not because his sovereign wishes to renounce peace, but because his majesty finds himself obliged to do so; the French government not having consented to all the conditions which were comprised in the proposals originally made to them by his Britannic majesty, and having moreover rejected, as the basis for the treaty with Russia, the just and reasonable conditions which the undersigned was authorised to propose.

The undersigned has received with real satisfaction the general assurance of the disposition of the French government to renew the negotiation at a future period, as expressed in the official note of his excellency the minister for foreign affairs. He has seen with no less pleasure, that the tone and the moderation observed in this communication correspond with the sentiments which accompany them. On this subject his excellency may rest assured, that the French government could not in any way express a stronger desire to see an end put to the calamities of war, than that which his Britannic majesty will invariably feel, whenever peace can be concluded on conditions compatible with the honour of his crown and the interests of his subjects.

The undersigned ought here to conclude the official answer which he has thought necessary to make to the note of his excellency the minister for foreign affairs. But he can not pass over in silence

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one part of this note, where his excellency wishes to convey the idea that the British government seems no longer disposed to act on the same principles which directed the conduct of the great man whom England has lately lost. The undersigned without being authorised to mention this subject, nor even to introduce it in an official paper, trusts in the known goodness and indulgence of his sovereign, when he allows himself to make the following observations on this subject.

During twenty-six years of uninterrupted connection with Mr. Fox, the undersigned, as much as any one, has had an opportunity of confidentially learning the sentiments of that celebrated man. From his knowledge of them he is impressed with the strongest conviction, that no minister could give to the instructions of which he was to be the organ a more perfect assent, or concur more effectually in their execution, than Mr. Fox would have done, in giving to the undersigned, on the part of his Britannic majesty, such orders as the undersigned has in fact received, under circumstances in which peace (on the just and equitable conditions which had been proposed to that minister) would have appeared to him impracticable.

How much would this opinion have been strengthened in the mind of that minister, on perceiving the French government refuse the just demands of that illustrious ally, who, by his fidelity to his Britannic majesty, has deserved on the part of the king, that his interests should be as dear to him as his own.

The undersigned has the honour to acquaint his excellency the mi-

nister for foreign affairs, that he this morning applied to his excellency M. de Champagny for his passports. At the same time he requests him to accept the assurance of his high consideration.

(Signed) LAUDERDALE.

No. 56.

Extract from a dispatch from Mr. Arbuthnot to Mr. secretary Fox, dated Bayukdere, August 25th, 1806. Received September 29th. This relates to the recall of the Hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia, contrary to the convention with Russia. This was done by the influence of the French minister to the Porte, M. Sebastiani.

Speech of the speaker of the house of commons.

In the house of commons, May 23, the secretary at war, after paying many compliments to the zeal and ability of the managers of lord Melville's impeachment, moved that the thanks of the house be given to them, for their upright conduct.—The motion was carried with *one* dissentient voice.

The speaker then rose, and addressed the managers as follows:

“Gentlemen,

“This house, upon the result of grave and important inquiries into the administration of the public expenditure, came to the resolution of entering upon the most solemn of all its functions; and of resorting to that transcendent power, by which it can bring to judgment all misdeeds done by the highest servants of the crown, and most effectually avenge all inroads made, or attempted to be made, upon the liberties of the people.

“The

“The conduct and management of that power it delegated to you; to prepare and arrange the proofs of complex and intricate facts; and to make good the charge of high crimes and misdemeanors against a noble person, whose elevated and splendid situations in the state rendered his actions of signal example, for good or for evil, to all persons intrusted with the public treasure.

“Throughout the progress of the trial so undertaken, we have seen with peculiar satisfaction, its proceedings conducted with an exemplary diligence and dispatch, which have rescued impeachments from the disgrace into which they had nearly fallen, and have restored them to their antient strength and honour. Upon your part we have also witnessed that unwearied industry, and singular sagacity, with which you have pursued and established the proofs;—that boldness so properly belonging to the commons, with which you have maintained the charge; and that powerful display of argument and learned eloquence which have spread the light of day over dark, secret, and criminal transactions.

“The issue of the whole is now with the lords; and, whether that be of condemnation or acquittal, it rests with a tribunal, which, so far as depends upon human institutions, promises the fairest hopes of ultimate justice.

“But, be that issue what it may, your part is accomplished. In the discharge of your duty, you have satisfied the expectation of the commons; you have obtained the high reward of their approbation and thanks; and, in obedience to their commands, I am now to acquaint you with their resolution;

“That the thanks of this house be given to the members, who

‘were appointed the managers of the impeachment against Henry lord viscount Melville, for their faithful management in their discharge of the trust reposed in them.’”

To the king's most excellent majesty.

The humble, loyal, and dutiful address of the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London in common council assembled.—Presented Feb. 19, 1806.

“Most gracious sovereign,

“We your majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common council assembled, most humbly approach your majesty with the warmest sentiments of loyalty and attachment to your majesty's sacred person and family.

“We beg to assure your majesty, that while we contemplate with the deepest concern and disappointment the late disastrous events, which have led in so rapid and extraordinary a manner to the defeat and humiliation of the Austrian power, we cannot refrain from offering to your majesty our sincere thanks and congratulations on the formation of an administration combining men of the highest consideration and talents; affording, amidst these adverse events, the cheering prospect, that by such an union of wisdom and energy in your majesty's councils, a system of vigour, vigilance, and œconomy will be adopted which may support our public affairs, preserve and strengthen our national security, and prove most conducive to the honour and dignity of your majesty's

jesty's crown, and the happiness and liberties of your people.

“Viewing the high and distinguished characters composing your majesty's present government, we have perfect confidence, that under your majesty's direction, the national strength will be augmented, its resources improved and preserved, and the utmost energies of a free, loyal, and united people will be called forth into action, so that with the blessing of Divine Providence this country may keep fast its liberties and independence, and may maintain its due rank among the nations of Europe.

“Permit us to assure your majesty of our firm co-operation in every measure which may be deemed essential towards resisting any unreasonable pretensions on the part of your majesty's enemies, and for enabling your majesty to restore to your people the blessings of peace, on such terms as may be consistent with the honour, dignity, and safety of these realms.

“Signed by order of the court,

“HENRY WOODTHORPE.”

To which address his majesty was pleased to return the following most gracious answer :

“I thank you for this most loyal and dutiful address. I receive with the highest satisfaction, your assurances of loyalty and attachment to my person and family ; and you may rest assured, that I can have no other object in view in the measures adopted for the administration of my government, than to maintain the honour and dignity of my crown, and the union, the happiness, and the essential interests of my people.”

AMERICA.

Message from the president to the house of representatives.

“In my message to both houses of congress at the opening of their present session, I submitted to their attention, among other subjects, the oppression of our commerce and navigation, by the irregular practices of armed vessels, public and private, and by the introduction of new principles derogatory of the rights of neutrals, as acknowledged by the usage of nations. The memorials of several bodies of merchants of the United States are now communicated, and will develop those principles and practices which are producing the most ruinous effects on our lawful commerce and navigation.—The right of a neutral to carry on commercial intercourse with every part of the dominions of a belligerent, permitted by the laws of the country, with the exception of blockaded ports and contraband of war, was believed to have been decided between Great Britain and the United States, by the sentence of their commissioners, mutually appointed to decide in that and other questions of difference between the two nations, and by the actual payment of the damages awarded by them, against Great Britain for infractions of that right. When, therefore, it was perceived that the same principle was revived, with others more novel, and extending the injury, instructions were given to the minister plenipotentiary of the United States at the court of London, and remonstrances duly made by him on this subject, as will appear by documents transmitted herewith. These were followed by a partial and temporary suspension only, without any disavowal of the

the principle. He has therefore been instructed to urge this subject anew, to bring it more fully to the bar of reason, and to insist on rights too evident and too important to be surrendered. In the mean time the evil is proceeding under adjudications founded on the principle which is denied. Under these circumstances the subject presents itself for the consideration of congress. On the impressment of our seamen, our remonstrances have never been intermitted. A hope existed at one moment of an arrangement which might have been submitted to; but it soon passed away, and the practice, though relaxed at times in the distant seas, has been constantly pursued in those in our own neighbourhood. The grounds on which the reclamations on this subject have been urged, will appear in an extract from instructions to our minister at London now communicated.

TH. JEFFERSON.

17th Jan. 1806.

FRENCH PAPERS.

IMPERIAL DECREE

From the protocol of our secretary of state.

From our imperial camp at Berlin, Nov. 21, 1806.

Napoleon, emperor of the French, and king of Italy.

Whereas,

1. That England has ceased to observe the law of nations, recognised by all civilized states.

2. That she considers every individual as an enemy who belongs to an hostile state, and consequently makes prisoners, not merely the crews of ships of war, but also the crews of merchant vessels; and even

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the members of commercial factories, and persons connected with commerce, where employed in their mercantile affairs.

3. That she extends the rights of conquest to the cargo and commodities, and to the property of individuals; which right of conquest, however, ought only to be applicable to that which belongs to the hostile state.

4. That she extends her right of blockade to places not fortified, and to commercial ports, in bays, and the mouths of navigable rivers; which blockade, according to the principles and the practice of all civilized nations, is applicable only to fortified places.

That she considers a place in a state of blockade before which she has not even a single ship of war, although a place can only be considered as blockaded when it is so circumscribed in its communication that it is impossible to approach it without visible danger.

That she even declares places in a state of blockade which, with their whole united strength, she would be unable effectually to blockade, for instance, whole coasts and whole kingdoms.

5. That this monstrous abuse of the right of blockade has no other object but to impede the communication between nations, and to aggrandise the commerce and industry of England by the ruins of the commerce and industry of the continent.

6. That as this is the object of England, all those who carry on traffic in English commodities upon the continent, by doing so, second her views and render themselves her accomplices.

7. That this conduct of England, which is altogether worthy of the age of barbarism, has become

(Q)

advantageous

advantageous to that power to the prejudice of every other.

8. That it is a right conferred by nature to oppose to an enemy the weapons he employs against you, and to fight against him in the same manner in which he attacks, and that this principle is recognized by all ideas of justice and all liberal sentiments, the result of that civilization by which societies are distinguished.

We therefore determine to employ against England those principles which she has adopted in her maritime code.

The consequence of the present decree shall be considered as fixed fundamental laws of the empire, so long as England refuses to acknowledge one and the same law as applicable both to sea and land, till she ceases to consider private property, be it what it may, a good prize—till she ceases to extend to the persons of individuals who are not engaged in military operations the principles by which she at present treats them as prisoners of war—and until she shall apply the rights of blockade only to those places which she has a force fully adequate to cut off from communication.

We have therefore decreed and declare as follows:—

Article 1. The British islands are declared to be in a state of blockade.

2. All commerce and all correspondence with the British isles are prohibited.

3. The letters or packets which are addressed to England or to Englishmen, or which are written in the English language, shall not be forwarded by the posts, and shall be taken away.

4. Every individual who is an English subject, of whatever condition he be, who is found in the

countries occupied by our troops, or those of our allies, shall be made prisoner of war.

5. Every magazine, every commodity, every article of property, of whatever sort, which belongs to an English subject, shall be declared good prize.

6. The trade in English commodities is prohibited, and every article which belongs to England, or is the produce of her manufactures and colonies, is declared good prize.

7. The half of the proceeds of the confiscation of the articles, property, and goods declared good prize by the preceding article, will be employed to indemnify the merchants for the losses which they suffer by the capture of trading vessels seized by the English cruizers.

8. No ship which comes direct from England or the English colonies, or has been there after the publication of the present decree, shall be admitted into any harbour.

9. Every ship which trades with a false declaration, in contravention of the above principles, shall be seized, and the ship and cargo confiscated as if they were English property.

10. Our prize court at Paris is invested with power definitively to settle all disputes which may arise in our empire or in the countries occupied by the French armies in regard to the execution of the present decree. Moreover, our prize court at Milan is invested with full power finally to decide all disputes which may arise within the dominions of our kingdom of Italy.

11. The present decree shall be communicated to the kings of Spain, of Naples, of Holland and Etruria, and our other allies, whose

whose subjects, as well as our own, have been the victims of the injustice and barbarity of the English maritime code.

12. Our ministers of foreign affairs, of war, of marine, of finance, of police, and our post-masters general, each of them, in as far as concerns his department, is intrusted with the execution of the present decree.

(Signed) NAPOLEON.
By the emperor.
H. MARET,
Secretary of state.

NOTE

Presented on the 24th of November, by his excellency the French imperial minister M. Bourienne, to the senate of Hamburgh.

The undersigned minister of his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy to the states of Lower Saxony, has been commanded by his sovereign to communicate to the city of Hamburgh as follows :

That,—As England has not acknowledged the laws of nations, which are observed by all civilized states ;

As she makes prisoners individuals who do not belong to the military service ;

As she seizes and confiscates private property ;

As she considers places in a state of blockade which in reality are not so, as well as places of commerce, not fortified bays and mouths of rivers ;

As she declares places in a state of blockade, which in point of fact are not so, or which in their very nature cannot be so placed ;

France is reduced to the necessity of applying the same princi-

ples which England adopts in her maritime code to the British islands, to British subjects, to their property of every kind, to be found in the territories, states, and ports occupied or to be occupied by the French arms, to the ships coming from the British islands or colonies arriving in such ports, as well as those which shall go from such ports to those belonging to Great Britain ;

That while his majesty the emperor and king declares the British islands in a state of blockade, and with respect to English subjects, their property, and the ships which come from the British islands or possessions, or which are bound for the same, in doing which his majesty is justified by the laws of self-defence ;

That his majesty the emperor and king in doing so has been prompted not merely by the interest of France, but that he has also considered it as his duty to protect the continent from the misery with which it is threatened, since the acts of violence exercised by England are visibly intended to interrupt the communications between nations, and to elevate its industry and commerce on the ruins of the industry and commerce of the continent, whence it follows that every person on the continent, who carries on commerce in English commodities, supports the views of England, and must be considered as her accomplice ;

That as a great number of the inhabitants of the city of Hamburgh are in this situation, and are notoriously engaged in the affairs of England, his majesty the emperor and king feels himself reluctantly compelled to take possession of that city, and to give orders for the execution of the measures above stated

stated to be necessary, of which the undersigned is authorised to give notice in manner as follows :—

Art. 1. All English goods which are found in the city, ports, and territories of Hamburgh, to whomsoever they may belong, shall be confiscated.

2. Every Englishman, or English subject, in the city, or in the ports and territory abovementioned, is a prisoner of war.

3. All moveable and personal property in the city of Hamburgh, its ports or territories, belonging to Englishmen or English subjects, is confiscated.

4. No ship coming from England, or bound for the same, shall be admitted into the above-mentioned ports, city, or territories.

5. Every ship which by means of false declarations shall attempt to sail from the above-mentioned city, ports, and territories to England, shall be confiscated.

6. No English courier, nor English letter bag, shall be allowed to pass through the city, ports, or territory of Hamburgh.

The undersigned has the honour to renew to the senate his assurances of high consideration.

(Signed) BOURIENNE.

PROCLAMATION.

His excellency the marshal of the empire, Mortier, with respect to the account which has been rendered to him, having remarked that the distribution hitherto made of the possession of English merchandise does not offer a satisfactory result, considering that the merchants who have delivered in accounts may have acted with too much precipitation, and have given such declaration without applying

to them all the attention and reflection which they require; considering besides, that the multiplied occupations of the commandant of the place do not permit him to perform the business with which he was charged, in keeping the register of inspection, enjoins every individual having in his possession merchandise belonging to the English, or produce from English manufactures, to present himself, within forty-eight hours, dated from Monday, the 24th of November, 1806, to the inspector of reviews, *per interim*, of the 28th division of the grand army, where they will make declaration and inscription in a register opened for that purpose, marked by the general in chief of the staff, of all merchandise in their possession, belonging, as above stated, to the English, or the produce of English manufactures.

At the expiration of the term of 48 hours, domiciliary visits will be made, and all those who act contrary to the present order will be militarily punished.

Every merchant or trader having already made a declaration, must present himself again, and reiterate his inscription with the inspector of reviews, at No. 66, Groninger-street.

Hamburgh, Nov. 23, 1806.

Proclamation of general Bernadotte to the inhabitants of the country of Anspach.

In consequence of a treaty concluded between France and Prussia, his Prussian majesty has consented to cede Anspach to the king of Bavaria, and the occupation of this country, conformably to the said treaty, was to take place at the same moment that the troops of the king of Prussia were to take possession

possession of Hanover. The Prussians having occupied that electorate, I have received orders to proceed to the occupation of Anspach. The revenues and the resources of the country shall be put in sequestration for the maintenance of the troops which shall occupy it, during the time which shall be judged necessary.

The army, the command of which is intrusted to me, shall observe strict discipline; and I will punish with all the rigour of the laws every soldier who shall desert, or who shall disturb the tranquillity of the inhabitants.

On my part, I have reason to hope, that the people of Anspach will receive, as they ought, the troops under my orders.

BERNADOTTE.

Head-quarters at Anspach,

Feb. 24.

Letter from his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, to his majesty the king of Bavaria.

Paris, Sept. 27.

Sir, my brother,

It is more than a month since Prussia has armed, and it is known to all the world that she arms against France and against the confederation of the Rhine. We have sought for the motives of these armaments without being able to discover them. The letters written to us by his Prussian majesty are amicable: his minister for foreign affairs has notified to our envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, that he recognises the confederation of the Rhine, and that he has no objection to the arrangements made in the south of Germany.

Are the armaments of Prussia the result of a coalition with Rus-

sia, or merely of the intrigues of the different parties which exist at Berlin, and the irresolution of the cabinet? Have they for their object to force Hesse, Saxony, and the Hanseatic towns, to contract obligations which the two latter powers do not appear to wish to form? Does Prussia wish to compel us ourselves to depart from the declaration which we have made, that the Hanseatic towns shall not enter into any particular confederation? a declaration founded upon the commercial interests of France, and of the south of Germany, and upon what has been made known to us by England, that any change in the present situation of the Hanseatic towns will be a great obstacle to a general peace.—We have also declared that the princes of the Germanic empire, who were not comprised in the confederation of the Rhine, ought to be at liberty to consult only their own interest and convenience, that they ought to be regarded as perfectly free, that we would do nothing to draw them into the confederation of the Rhine, but that we would not suffer them to be forced to do any act which would be contrary to their inclination, their policy, or the interests of their people. Ought this just declaration to have so wounded the cabinet of Berlin, that we should be obliged to retract it? Amongst all these motives which is the true one we cannot divine, and the future only can reveal the secret of a conduct as strange as it was unexpected. A month has elapsed without our taking notice of it. Our inattention has only served to embolden all those fire-brands who wish to precipitate the court of Berlin into a most inconsiderate contest.

At length the armaments of
(Q 3) Prussia

Prussia have led to the case provided for by one of the articles of the treaty of the 12th of July, and we think it necessary that all the sovereigns who composed the confederation of the Rhine, should arm to defend its interests, to guaranty and maintain the inviolability of its territory. Instead of 200,000 men, which France is bound to furnish, she will furnish 300,000; and we have just given orders that the troops necessary to complete that number shall be transported with speed to the Lower Rhine. The troops of your majesty being still on a war footing, we invite your majesty to issue orders that they may be put in a state to march without delay, with all their field equipage, in order that they may contribute to the defence of the common cause, the success of which we dare believe will correspond with its justice, if at length, contrary to our wishes, and even contrary to our hopes, Prussia should compel us to repel force by force.

We pray God, my brother, that he may have you in his holy and worthy keeping.

Given at St. Cloud, the
21st of Sept. 1806.

NAPOLÉON.

Conformable to the original,
The minister for foreign affairs,
C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Copy of the first note addressed to his excellency general Knobelsdorff, by his excellency the prince of Benevento, minister for foreign affairs, dated Sept. 11, 1806.

The undersigned minister of foreign relations is charged, by the express order of his majesty the

emperor and king, to make known to his excellency M. Knobelsdorff, that new advices from Berlin, of an early date in September, state, that the garrison of that city had set out for the frontiers; that all the armaments appeared to have redoubled their activity; and that they were publicly stated at Berlin itself, as being directed against France.

The dispositions of the court of Berlin have so much the more strongly surprised his majesty, as he was far from foreseeing them, after the mission of M. de Knobelsdorff, and the letter of his majesty the king of Prussia, of which he was the bearer.

His majesty the emperor and king has ordered some reinforcements to be sent to his army. Prudence commanded him to take steps against a project of aggression, as unexpected as it would be unjust. But it could only be in spite of himself, and contrary to his dearest wish, that he should see himself forced to unite the forces of his empire against a power whom nature herself has destined to be the friend of France, since she had tied together the two states by a community of interests before they were united by treaties. He pities the inconsiderateness of those agents who have procured the adoption, as useful, and even necessary, of the measures taken by the court of Berlin. But his sentiments for his majesty the king of Prussia have been neither changed nor weakened; nor will be so, as long as his majesty shall not be forced to think that the Prussian armaments are not the result of a system of aggression against France; and when intrigue, which appears to have been active in so many ways, and under so many forms, in order to inspire into the cabinet of Berlin prejudices

prejudices against its best and most faithful ally, shall have ceased; when it shall no longer menace, by preparations, a nation which, up to this hour, it has not appeared easy to intimidate; his majesty the emperor will regard that moment as the happiest for himself; and for his majesty the king of Prussia. He will be the first to countermand the movements of the troops, which he has ordered to interrupt armaments ruinous to his measures, and the relations between the two states will be re-established in all their intimacy.

It is, without doubt, a satisfying thing to the heart of his majesty, not to have given, directly or indirectly, room for the misunderstanding which appears between the two states, and to be unable to be responsible for the results of this singular and strange contest, since he has not ceased constantly to make, by the means of his envoy extraordinary, and by the undersigned, every declaration proper to expose the intrigues which, in spite of his cares, have prevailed at Berlin; but it is at the same time a great subject of reflection for his imperial majesty, and of grief, that while the alliance with Prussia seemed likely to permit him to diminish the number of his troops, and to direct all his forces against the common enemy, who is also that of the continent, it is against his own ally that he has precautions to take.

The last news from Berlin diminishing greatly the hope that the emperor had founded upon the mission of M. Knobelsdorff, and upon the letter of his majesty the king of Prussia, and seeming to confirm the opinion of those who think that the armament of Prussia, without any foregoing explanation, is only the consequence of the first

development of a system combined with the enemies of France, his majesty sees himself obliged to give to his preparations a general, public, and national character. He has always been willing that the undersigned should declare, that even after the publicity of the extraordinary measures to which his majesty has found it necessary to recur, he is not less disposed to believe that the armament of the court of Berlin is only the effect of a misunderstanding, itself produced by false reports, and to replace himself, when that armament shall have ceased, in the same system of good understanding, of alliance, and of amity, which united the two states.

The undersigned, &c.

(Signed) C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Copy of the note of M. de Knobelsdorff, to the minister for foreign affairs, Sept. 12, 1806.

The undersigned feeling how much it is of the first importance to answer immediately the note which his excellency the prince of Benevento, minister for foreign affairs, has done him the honour of addressing to him this evening, feels himself compelled to limit himself to the representation of the following observations. The motives which have engaged the king, my master, to make armaments, have been the effect of a scheme of the enemies of France and Prussia; who, jealous of the intimacy which exists between these two powers, have done every thing in their power to alarm, by false reports coming at once from every quarter. But, above all, what proves the spirit of this measure is, that his majesty has concerted it with no person whatsoever, and that the

intelligence respecting it arrived sooner at Paris than at Vienna, St. Petersburg, and London. But the king, my master, has ordered to be made to the envoy of his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy, an amicable communication on the subject of these measures. That minister had not yet returned an answer upon this communication. The relation of the interesting conversations that his imperial majesty has deigned to entertain with the undersigned and the marquis de Lucchesini, could not yet have arrived at Berlin. After this explanation, the undersigned can only testify to his excellency his most ardent wish, that public acts may yet rest suspended, till the return of the courier dispatched to Berlin.

The undersigned begs his excellency, &c.

(Signed) GEN. KNOBELSDORFF.

Copy of the second note to M. de Knobelsdorff, dated Sept. 13, 1806.

The undersigned has laid before his majesty the emperor and king, the note that his excellency M. de Knobelsdorff yesterday did him the honour to address to him.

His majesty has found therein, with pleasure, the assurance that Prussia had not entered into any concert hostile to France: that the armament she has made, had no other cause than a misunderstanding; that the departure of the garrison of Berlin, though it happened since the letter written by his majesty the king of Prussia, ought only to be considered as the execution of an anterior order; and that the movements marked out for the Prussian troops would cease as soon as it was known at Berlin, what his

majesty the emperor and king was pleased to say to M. de Knobelsdorff and Lucchesini, in the particular audiences which he granted them.

His majesty has ordered in consequence, that the communications which were to have been made to the senate on Monday next, shall be deferred; and that no troops, beside those which are actually on their march towards the Rhine, shall be put in motion, until his majesty learns the determinations and the measures that the court of Berlin shall have taken, after the report that M. de Knobelsdorff and Lucchesini have made; and if these determinations are such that the French army in Germany shall be no longer menaced, and that all things shall be replaced between France and Prussia on the same footing as they were a month ago, his majesty will immediately order the retrograde march of the troops who are actually advancing to the Rhine.

His majesty expects that this singular misunderstanding will be cleared up. He expects to be enabled, without any mixture of uncertainty or doubt, to restore himself to those sentiments of which he has given so many proofs to the court of Berlin, and which have always been those of a faithful ally.

The undersigned prays M. de Knobelsdorff to receive the assurances of his high consideration.

(Signed) C. M. TALLEYRAND,
Prince of Benevento.

Copy of the third note addressed by the minister of foreign affairs to M. de Knobelsdorff.

The undersigned minister of foreign relations has expressed to his

his excellency M. Knobelsdorff, in the note which he had the honour to write to him on the 13th of Sept. the confiding dispositions with which his majesty the emperor received the assurances given by M. Knobelsdorff, that the military movements of the court of Berlin were not the result of any hostile concert against France, but simply the effect of a misunderstanding; and that they would cease the moment when the first communication of his excellency should have arrived at Berlin.

Nevertheless, the news received every day bear so much all the character of an imminent war, that his imperial majesty must feel some regret at the engagement he made, not yet to call out his reserve, and to defer the constitutional notification, after which all the forces of the nation would be placed at his disposal. He will fulfil that engagement: but he shall think it contrary to prudence and to the interest of his people, not to order, in the interim, all the measures, and all the movements of the troops, which can take place without previous notification.

His majesty, has, at the same time, charged the undersigned to express again to M. Knobelsdorff, that he cannot yet explain to himself, by what forgetfulness of her interests, Prussia should be willing to renounce her ties of amity with France. War between the two countries appears to him a real political monstrosity; and from the moment that the cabinet of Berlin shall return to her pacific dispositions, and shall cease to menace the armies of Germany, his majesty engages to countermand all the measures which prudence commanded him to take. He will seize with pleasure, as he does not cease

to do in all circumstances, the occasion of testifying to his majesty the king of Prussia the price he attaches to his friendship; to an union founded on a wise policy, and on reciprocal interests; and to prove to him that his sentiments are always the same, and that no provocation has been able to alter them.

The undersigned is happy in being able to give to his excellency M. de Knobelsdorff so formal an assurance of the dispositions of his majesty, which are so foreign to all idea of war with Prussia, that he has already committed a very grave military fault, in retarding his military preparations for one month, and in consenting to let fifteen days more pass over without calling out his reserves and his national guards.

This confidence, which his majesty loves to preserve, proves what a value he sets upon what was stated to him by M. Knobelsdorff, that Prussia had entered into no concert with the enemies of France, and that the assurances that he had received, in putting a term to the misunderstanding which has just arisen, would cause the cessation of those armaments which were the consequences of it.

(Signed)

C. M. TALLEYRAND, &c.
Paris, 18th Sept. 1806.

Second note of M. Knobelsdorff to the minister for foreign affairs.

The undersigned envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his majesty the king of Prussia received yesterday the note addressed to him by his excellency the prince of Benevento, minister for foreign affairs. If, in this communication, the undersigned has found again, with extreme satisfaction,

tion, the assurance formerly given, in the note of the 13th of September, that his majesty the emperor and king would fulfil the engagement which he had made to wait the result of the explanations given to M. de Lucchesini and to the general Knobelsdorff, before taking any measures respecting the constitutional notification, which would put all the forces of the French nation at the disposal of government, he has learned with infinite pain that his majesty should have had any regret at that engagement; and that, in fulfilling it, he thinks it necessary to order all the measures and all the movements of troops, which can be taken without previous notification.

The undersigned hastens to reiterate to his excellency M. the prince of Benevento, the assurance that his majesty the king of Prussia, far from ever having had an idea of renouncing his relations of amity with France, participates in that respect all the sentiments of his imperial and royal majesty, expressed in the communication to which this note is an answer; that, far from having entered into a concert with the enemies of France, his Prussian majesty has always sought to calm all resentments for facilitating the re-establishment of a general peace; in fine, that far from menacing the French armies in Germany by his armaments, these only took place in consequence of the advice received at Berlin, and which was so alarming, that it was not possible to neglect the measures of precaution demanded by prudence for the well fare of the state.

The undersigned is pleased, in renewing to his excellency the prince of Benevento the assurance, that in taking these measures his

majesty the king of Prussia has not renounced, for a single instant, the assurance of seeing the clouds dispersed that have been raised between him and France; and general Knobelsdorff is persuaded, that such will be the result of the explanations that have taken place. In begging M. the prince of Benevento to make known to his majesty the emperor and king this answer to his communication, the undersigned has the honour to renew to his excellency the assurances of his high consideration.

(Signed) GEN. KNOBELSDORFF.
Paris, Sept. 29, 1806.

Second report addressed to his majesty the emperor and king, by the minister of foreign relations, Oct. 6, 1806.

Sire,—When, in the report that a few days back I had the honour to address your majesty, I established, that if Prussia had any personal reasons which led her to make war, it could only be from a desire to enslave Saxony, and the Hanseatic towns, I was far from perceiving, that she would ever dare avow such a motive. It is, nevertheless, an avowal which she has not feared to make and express in a note that M. de Knobelsdorff has sent me from Metz, and which I have the honour to address to your majesty. Of the three demands which that note contains, the first and the third are only made to disguise, if it be possible, that no real importance may be attached to the second.

Prussia, after having seen with a tranquil eye the French armies in Germany during a year, could not be alarmed at their presence when their numbers were diminished—when they were dispersed in small
bodies

bodies in distant cantonments,—when, above all, your majesty had solemnly announced that they should return to France as soon as the affair of Cattaro, the cause of the prolongation of their stay in Germany, should be settled by an agreement with Austria, and that already the order for their return was given.

Prussia, who speaks of a negotiation to fix all the interests in question, knows well that there is no point of interest whatever in question between the two states; that the amicable discussion which should definitively fix the fate of the abbeys of Essen and Werden has not been deferred by any delay of the French cabinet. The French troops have evacuated those territories which the grand duke of Berg had caused to be occupied, in the perfect persuasion that numerous documents had given him, that they made part of the duchy of Cleves, and that they were comprehended in the cession of that duchy.

Thus the demands of Prussia, on these different points, and others of the same nature, and the pretended grievances which she seems to indicate, do not offer the real mind of the cabinet of Berlin. It does not reveal it. It lets its secret escape only, when it demands that *no further obstacle whatever shall be made, on the part of France, to the formation of the northern league, which shall embrace, without any exception, all the states not named in the fundamental act of the confederation of the Rhine.*

Thus, to satisfy the most unjust ambition, Prussia consents to break the bonds that united her to France, to call down new calamities upon the continent, of which your majesty would wish to cicatrize the

wounds and to assure the tranquillity, to provoke a faithful ally, to put him under the cruel necessity of repelling force by force, and once more to snatch his army from the repose which he aspires to make it enjoy, after so many fatigues and triumphs.

I say it with grief, I lose the hope of the ability to preserve peace, from the moment it is made to depend upon conditions that equity and honour equally oppose—proposed as they are, in a tone, and in forms that the French people endured in no time, and from no power, and which it can less than ever endure under your majesty's reign.

(Signed) C. M. TALLEYRAND, &c.
Mayence, Oct. 6, 1806.

NOTE.

The undersigned minister of his Prussian majesty, by the same courier who brought the letter to his imperial majesty, which he has had the honour to transmit to-day to his excellency the prince of Benevento, has received orders to make the following communications.—Their object is to have the relations of the two courts no longer in suspense. Each of them is so eminently interested in remaining no longer in doubt upon the sentiments of the other, that the king flatters himself that his majesty the emperor will applaud his frankness. His Prussian majesty has expressed in the letter mentioned above, his entire thoughts, and the whole view of the subject of complaint, which, from a faithful and honest ally, have made him become a neighbour alarmed for his existence, and necessarily aroused for the defence of his dearest interests. The perusal of it will recall to his majesty

jesty the emperor and king what Prussia was for a long time to France. Will not the remembrance of the past be for her the pledge of the future? And what judge would be blind enough to believe that the king could have been for nine years towards France so consistent, and perhaps so partial, in order to place himself voluntarily with her in a different relation--he who more than once might perhaps have ruined her, and who knows now only too well the progress of her power?

But if France has in her recollections, and in the nature of things, the pledge of the sentiments of Prussia, it is not so with this last power: her recollections are made to alarm her: she has been careless, neutral, friendly, and even in alliance. The destruction that surrounds her, the gigantic increase of a power essentially military and conquering, which has injured her successively in her greatest interests, and menaces her in them all, leaves her now without a guaranty. This state of things cannot last. The king sees almost nothing round him but French troops, or vassals of France, ready to march with her. All the declarations of his imperial majesty announce, that this attitude will not change. Far from that, new troops issue from the interior of France. Already the journals of his capital indulge themselves in a language against Prussia, of which a sovereign, such as the king, can despise the infamy, but which does not conceal the intentions and the error of the government that suffers it. The danger grows every day. It is necessary to be heard at once, or be heard no more.

Two powers who esteem each other, and who fear each other no

more than they are able without ceasing to esteem themselves, have no need to go about to explain themselves. France will not be less strong for being just, and Prussia has no other ambition than her independence, and the security of her allies. In the actual position of affairs, both one and the other would risk every thing in protracting this uncertainty. The undersigned has received orders in consequence, to declare that the king expects with justice from his imperial majesty,

1. That the whole of the French troops, which are called by no fair pretence into Germany, should immediately repass the Rhine without exception, beginning their march on the very day that the king expects the answer of the emperor, and continue it without halting; for this immediate and complete retreat is the only pledge of security that the king can receive at the point to which affairs have been brought.

2. That no obstacle shall be raised on the part of France to the formation of the league of the north, which shall include, without any exception, all the states not named in the fundamental act of the confederation of the Rhine.

3. That a negotiation shall be immediately opened, to decide in a permanent manner on all the points in dispute, and that for Prussia its preliminary basis shall be the separation of Wesel from the French empire, and the re-occupation of the three Abbeys by the Prussian troops.

The instant that his majesty is assured that this basis is accepted, he will resume that attitude which he has quitted with regret, and will become to France that frank and peaceable neighbour, who for

so many years has seen, without jealousy, the glory of a brave people, for whose prosperity he has been anxious. But the latest intelligence of the march of the French troops compels his majesty to ascertain immediately what he is to do. The undersigned is charged to insist on an immediate answer, which at all events must reach his majesty's head-quarters by the 8th of October; his majesty still hoping that it will arrive there time enough, that the unexpected and rapid progress of events, and the presence of the troops, should not put either party under the necessity of providing for his safety.

The undersigned is particularly instructed to declare, in the most solemn manner, that peace is the most sincere wish of his majesty; and that he only requires that which can contribute to make it permanent. The causes of his apprehensions, the claims which he had for another connection, from France, are unfolded in the letter of his majesty to the emperor, and are calculated to obtain from that monarch the last permanent pledge of a new order of things.

The undersigned embraces this opportunity to renew to the prince of Benevento the assurances of his high consideration.

(Signed) KNOBELSDORFF.

Paris, Oct. 1, 1806.

The emperor Napoleon's appeal to the Saxons.

Saxons! the Prussians have overrun your territory. I enter it as your deliverer. They have forcibly broken the connections which united your troops, and have joined them to their own army.

You are called upon to shed your blood for an interest to which you are not only strangers, but which is even in opposition to your interests.

My army was upon the point of evacuating Germany when your territory was violated: it shall return to France as soon as Prussia has acknowledged your independence, and renounced the execution of the plan which she had formed against you.

Saxons! your prince had, till that moment, refused to enter into an alliance so opposite to his duties; if he has since consented to the conditions imposed upon him, it has only been in consequence of being compelled to it by the irruption of the Prussians.

I was deaf to the idle provocation which the Prussians offered against my people. I was deaf to them so long as their armaments were confined to the Prussian states, and my minister did not quit Berlin till your territory had been violated.

Saxons, your destiny is in your own hands! Will you remain undetermined between those who would bring you under the yoke, and those who would defend you? My victories shall secure the existence and the independence of your prince, and your nation. The conquests of the Prussians will only rivet your chains. But what do I say?—Have they not already tried every experiment?—Have they not, for a long time past, used every effort to compel your prince to acknowledge a sovereignty; which once directly imposed upon you, would erase you from the list of nations?

Your independence, your constitution, your liberty, would then only exist in the pages of memory; and

and the shades of your forefathers, those valiant Saxons, would disdain you for suffering yourselves to be reduced to slavery without resistance—a slavery prepared for you so long beforehand—and thus becoming witnesses of the degradation of your country into a Prussian province.

Given at our head-quarters at Ebersdorff, Oct. 11, 1806.

NAPOLÉON.

PROCLAMATION.

Francis II. &c. &c.

I have given peace to my good and faithful people. My resolutions have united with their wishes. I renounced all hopes of a change in the fortune of war, to banish with promptitude all the dangers and sufferings to which my flourishing country, and even the heart of the monarchy, my capital and residence, were exposed. The sacrifices were great, and were with difficulty wrung from my heart: but they could not stand in competition with the welfare, the domestic and civil welfare, of millions. For these I made the sacrifice; and I expect my indemnification in the blessings which are promised to my people by the return of peace. I know no other happiness than that of my people; and no glory superior to that of the father of these people, who in loyalty, unshaken fidelity, and disinterested love to their sovereign and their country, give place to no nation in Europe. The fame of their national character has exacted an unwilling tribute of esteem even from the enemy; but in my heart they

have fixed a monument which time itself will not be able to destroy. Under these emotions I returned to my residence, in the circle of my loyal and estimable citizens and inhabitants, and to the resumption of the direction of my affairs. The wounds inflicted by the war are deep: several years may be necessary to heal them, and to obliterate the impressions inflicted by the sufferings of this unfortunate period. The administration of the state has greater, and duties more difficult than ever to fulfil; and they will fulfil them: but they have at the same time stronger claims than ever upon the co-operation of all classes, for the laudable purpose of restoring the vigour of the interior, by disseminating the true culture of the mind, and animating the national industry in all its branches, through the restoration and increase of the national credit; and by these means to establish the monarchy upon that basis which the variable fate of the states of Europe has rendered necessary. Every moment of my life will be directed to this object, and devoted to the improvement of the welfare of the noble and good people who are dear to me as the children of my affection. United by the mutual obligations of reciprocal confidence, and the cordial love of my subjects, I shall only believe I have done enough for Austria, as a prince and a father, when its prosperity is again secured; when the sufferings of the citizens are forgotten, and nothing remains alive but the remembrance of my sacrifices, your fidelity, and your exalted and unshaken patriotism.

Vienna,
Feb. 1, 1806.

FRANCIS.

Abdication

Abdication of the office of emperor of Germany, by Francis, emperor of Austria.

We Francis Second, &c.

Since the peace of Presburgh, all our attention and all our care have been employed to fulfil with scrupulous fidelity all the engagements contracted by that treaty, to preserve to our subjects the happiness of peace, to consolidate every where the amicable relations happily re-established, waiting to discover whether the changes caused by the peace would permit us to perform our important duties, as chief of the Germanic empire, conformably to the capitulation of election.

The consequences, however, which ensued from some articles of the treaty of Presburgh, immediately after its publication, and which still exist, and those events generally known, which have since taken place in the Germanic empire, have convinced us that it will be impossible, under these circumstances, to continue the obligations contracted by the capitulation of election; and even, if, in reflecting on these political relations, it were possible to imagine a change of affairs, the convention of the 12th of July, signed at Paris, and ratified by the contracting parties, relative to an entire separation of several considerable states of the empire, and their peculiar consideration, has entirely destroyed every such hope.

Being thus convinced of the impossibility of being any longer enabled to fulfil the duties of our imperial functions, we owe it to our principles and to our duty, to renounce a crown which was only valuable in our eyes, whilst we were able to enjoy the confidence of the elec-

tors, princes, and other states of the Germanic empire, and to perform the duties which were imposed upon us. We declare, therefore, by these presents, that we, considering as dissolved the ties which have hitherto attached us to the states of the Germanic empire; that we, considering as extinguished by the confederation of the states of the Rhine, the charge in chief of the empire; and that we, considering ourselves thus acquitted of all our duties towards the Germanic empire, do resign the imperial crown, and the imperial government; we absolve, at the same time, the electors, princes, and states, and all that belong to the empire, particularly the members of the supreme tribunal, and all other magistrates of the empire, from those duties by which they were united to us as the legal chief of the empire, according to the constitution.

We absolve all our German provinces and states of the empire from their reciprocal duties towards the Germanic empire; and we desire, in incorporating them with our Austrian states, as emperor of Austria, and in preserving them in those amicable relations subsisting with the neighbouring powers and states, that they should attain that height of prosperity and happiness, which is the end of all our desires, and the object of our dearest wishes.

Done at our residence under our imperial seal.

Vienna, Aug. 6,
1806.

FRANCIS.

ADDRESS.

We Francis Second, &c.

In abdicating the imperial government of the empire, we, considering

sidering it as the last effort of our care, and as an absolute duty, do express thus publicly a desire equally reasonable and just, that the persons who have hitherto been employed in the administration of justice, and in diplomatic and other affairs, for the good of the whole empire, and for the service of the chief of the empire, should be suitably provided for.

The care which all the states of the empire took of those persons who lost their places by the affair of the indemnity in 1803, induces us to hope that the same sentiments of justice will be extended to those individuals who have hitherto been employed in the general service, who have been chosen in all parts of the Germanic empire, and many of whom have quitted other profitable places, looking forward to an honourable subsistence for life, and which should not be wanting to them on account of their fidelity, and the integrity and capacity with which they have executed their functions.

We have therefore taken the resolution of preserving to those of our imperial servants, who have hitherto drawn their salaries from our chamber, the same appointments, reserving to ourselves to place them in employments in the service of our hereditary states, and we hope, with so much the more confidence, that the electors, princes, and states will provide for the imperial chamber of justice of the empire, and the chancellerie of the chamber of justice, by charging themselves voluntarily with this expense, as it will be trifling in amount, and will diminish every year.

As to the chancellerie of the Aulic council of the empire, the funds destined for its support will

be employed to provide for the wants of those individuals who have hitherto drawn from thence their salaries: this will serve them until other measures may be taken.

Doné at our capital and residence of Vienna, under our imperial seal, the 6th of August, 1806.

FRANCIS.

RUSSIAN STATE PAPER.

The undersigned, plenipotentiary of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, hastens to inform the marquis de Circello, that the Russian troops came into Naples, merely with a view of landing and making a diversion in favour of the Austrian army employed in the north of Italy; and this being no longer an object, since Austria has agreed to an armistice with France, and which probably will lead to a peace between these powers, the Russian troops will evacuate the territory of his Sicilian majesty. The English troops also, which were intended to co-operate with them, will return again to Malta.

The frequent representations which the undersigned has made to the minister of his Sicilian majesty, in order to restore this country to its neutrality, will operate as a certain proof that the declaration which he has now the honour to transmit, will be received with satisfaction. The undersigned avails himself of this opportunity to renew his former assurances, that his illustrious sovereign would have at all times respected the neutrality of these kingdoms, if the French government had not exhibited a contrary example.

But as his imperial majesty now restores the kingdom of Naples to its former neutrality, it is his

his sincere wish that the cabinet of the Thuilleries may imitate his example, by which the country will escape those agitations, the termination of which we may now hope to see. It never was the intention of his imperial majesty to open the theatre of war in the kingdom of Naples; and it was with great regret that he was compelled to take the measures alluded to.

The sentiments of sincere friendship, a proof of which the emperor has endeavoured to evince to his Sicilian majesty upon every occasion, will not permit him to doubt of the interest which his majesty the emperor will at all times take in the personal happiness of his Sicilian majesty, and in the well-being of his subjects.

When the true cause of landing the Russian and English troops in the kingdom of Naples shall be known, and the incapacity of his Sicilian majesty to resist them shall be taken into consideration, the proclamation of the French government, dated Schonbrunn sixth Frimaire, will be read with astonishment. This curious document, which might be taken for an emanation of pure benevolence, has apparently a later and a false date; and was certainly never known at Schonbrunn. The proclamation of general Massena of the thirteenth of January, which is not so violent, in fact, evinces in an equal degree, that the French government is determined to avail themselves of the temporary residence of the combined troops in Italy, for the purpose of extending their territory to the utmost limits of the peninsula; which, in fact, can never lead to that event, a general peace, which the French government has repeatedly held out as the object of its wishes."

Naples, Dec. 20, O.S.—Jan. 6, 1806.
1806.

Declaration in council of his majesty the king of Prussia to the assembled deputies of the Hanoverian provinces.

Gentlemen,

By your appointment, your deputy, count Von Hardenberg, has laid before me your representation of the third instant; and I have observed from it, with satisfaction, that you have acknowledged with gratitude my regulations in regard to the Hanoverian states. The additional sentiments therein contained are to me a security, that you will henceforth be devoted to me and my house with the same loyalty which you discovered for your former sovereigns. I therefore made no delay in more closely learning from your delegates those concerns that were intrusted to them by you, and now communicate to you the following answer to the declaration given in by them:

1. With regard to the secularization of the abbey of Marienrode, and the representation relative thereto, that not only the constitution of the states thereby suffered an alteration, but that one of the securities thereby appropriated to the payment of the public revenue, and the discharge of the public debt, would be withdrawn, should the revenues of the said abbey be inseparably united with the possession of the domains, contrary to the legal agreement between the impropiators and the states, whereby the revenues accruing from secularized spiritual foundations should be distinctly and separately applied to charitable purposes: it should be observed, that this abbey legally belongs to Hildesheim, and thus my particular regulation respecting the same can in no way prejudice

(R)

prejudice the said constitution. Besides, I have expressly established in the act of secularization, that in the mean time no change shall take place in respect to the contribution chargeable upon this abbey, towards the national revenue and the redemption of the public debt. For the rest, as it is far from being my intention to alter the destination of the effects of the abbey to charitable purposes, I feel satisfaction in assuring you, that the special administration of such parts as have been separated from the domains, and the application thereof to such beneficent and laudable purposes, shall be scrupulously continued, and the utmost care shall be taken both to augment these revenues by good management, and to ameliorate the mode of applying them, by the removal of all existing abuses.

2. The *ad interim* prohibition of home-made salt is to be considered solely as an inevitable regulation of police for securing an equal supply of that article of primary necessity, and cannot have the apprehended pernicious consequences, since the supply of salt will not thereby be diminished, but will only receive another direction.

3. The continuance of the hitherto existing constitution of the country in general, and

4. The continuance of the provincial constitutions, in particular, presupposes that a new and more intimate acquaintance with them may be more necessary than the commission of organization has been able to procure, in so short a period, and under such difficult circumstances.—But they will incessantly continue their labours in this respect, and I will not hereafter introduce any arbitrary changes, but such only as may be necessary to unite as intimately as possible

the Hanoverian territory with my monarchy, of which it now constitutes a part, and to govern it by such laws as have been found, by long experience, the fundamental pillars of the power, the security, and prosperity of the Prussian states; wherefrom the established constitution will be so little excluded, that it will much rather be built up and strengthened, as you may learn from the example of the neighbouring provinces, Brandenburg, Magdeburg, and Halberstadt.

5. The petition, with regard to any new modifications, upon which the states, together with other privileged orders, who may perhaps have particular knowledge of the subject, should be consulted, before that introduction, on account of any injurious consequences apprehended therefrom, is wholly conformable to the spirit of the maxims of the Prussian government, and will be pursued by the commission of organization in all doubtful cases whatsoever, and without particular instructions.

Finally, the military regulations, as soon as it can be done with safety, shall be so modified, that the grievances of the country, connected with the present extraordinary measures, shall wholly cease.

From this answer you will infer, and I give you with pleasure the strongest assurances on this head, that my whole endeavours are exclusively directed to heal the wounds, which the hitherto unhappy wars have produced, and to render your country completely happy. Neither ambition nor the lust of territory, but solely a conviction founded on experience, that the incorporation of the Hanoverian states with the Prussian monarchy

is obviously necessary for the welfare and security of both, have determined me to this union, and to the sacrifices connected with it. The past has taught you that England cannot protect you, and that you can be protected by Prussia alone. Prussia has now taken upon herself this protection, from which you have to expect greater security of person and of property, as well as the abolition of all oppressive abuses which the distance of your rulers produced. But you must also closely unite with a government which has wrought you all these blessings, and support with counsel and action a constitution which has been decided upon for your benefit. On the other hand, I will always approve myself your gracious sovereign,

(Signed) FREDERICK WILLIAM.
Charlottenburg, June 24, 1806.

PRUSSIAN MANIFESTO.

As his majesty the king of Prussia has taken up arms for the defence of his people, he thinks it necessary to lay before them, and all Europe, the circumstances which have imposed this duty on his majesty.

The politics of France have been the scourge of humanity during the last fifteen years. Those men who, in rapid succession, have been at the head of affairs in that country, have only sought the means of their dominion in war, and the guarantee of their existence in the wretchedness of the people may be viewed without astonishment. But the introduction of a regular government, to which the same necessity could not be imputed, gave new life to the hopes

of the friends of peace. Napoleon, invested with the supreme power, victorious, surrounded by weaker states, friendly disposed governments, or conquered and exhausted rivals, had it in his power to perform a better part. For the greatness of France, nothing more remained for him to do; for her happiness, every thing was in his power.

It is painful to be compelled to say, that French politics still remained the same. An insatiable ambition was still the ruling passion of France. She made use of arms and of treaties with the same view. The peace of Amiens was scarcely concluded before the signal for the first acts of violence followed. Holland and Switzerland, two independent states, were compelled to accept a constitution which converted them into French provinces. The renewal of war was the consequence.

Peace, however, still continued upon the continent. The German empire had purchased it by incalculable sacrifices. In the midst of this peace, nevertheless, the French troops invaded the electorate of Hanover; a country which had no concern in the war between France and England, while the ports of Germany were shut against the British flag; and the better to effect her object, France took possession of Cuxhaven, and the territory of a free state which was still more a stranger to the war than Hanover.

In the midst of this peace also, the same troops a few months after violated the German territory, in such a manner as to wound the honour of the nation still deeper. The Germans have never avenged the death of the duke D'Enghien;

but the remembrance of that event will never be extinguished among them.

The treaty of Luneville guaranteed the independence of the Italian republic. In spite of the most positive promises did Napoleon place the iron crown of Italy upon his own head. Genoa was incorporated with France: Lucca was very near sharing the same fate. Only a few months before had the emperor, on a solemn occasion—an occasion which imposed very important duties upon him—declared before his people and before all Europe, that he wished not to extend the limits of his territory. Besides, France was bound, by a treaty with Russia, to put the king of Sardinia in possession of indemnities in Italy. Instead of fulfilling that obligation, she made herself mistress of every object which could have been serviceable towards that indemnification.

Portugal wished to maintain her neutrality, but Portugal was compelled to purchase by gold the deceitful security of a few moments.

The Porte, who had not forgotten the invasion of Syria and Egypt, was the only power remaining in Europe which had not been subjected to the arbitrary proceedings of France.

But to these acts of violence, a system of abuse and injury remained still to be added. A journal, which proclaimed itself the voice of government, was chosen as a chronicle of the attacks incessantly made upon every crowned head.

Prussia could be no stranger to any of these general acts of oppression. Many of them were nearly connected with her substantial interests; especially as the wis-

dom of that system which considers the states of Europe as members of the same family, calls upon each of them for the defence of all; and that the unbounded aggrandizement of one state exposed the rest to danger, was sufficiently manifest to experience.

Still it is most essentially necessary to represent in what manner the conduct of France was calculated to operate in its immediate relation to Prussia.

It were superfluous to enumerate all the good offices rendered to Napoleon by Prussia. Prussia was the first power that acknowledged him. No promises, no menaces had been able to shake the king's neutrality. Every thing that the duty of a good neighbour could prescribe was most amply afforded during a period of six years. Prussia esteemed a valiant nation, which alone had learned, on its part, to respect Prussia both in war and peace; and she did justice to the genius of its chief. But the remembrance of these times is no longer retained by Napoleon.

Prussia had permitted the territory of Hanover to be invaded. In this she had countenanced an act of injustice; therefore was it her first view to remedy it. She offered herself for it instead of England, under the condition that the latter should cede it. It must, however, at least be recollected that thus a boundary was prescribed to France, which she should not pass. Napoleon solemnly pledged himself not to compromise the neutrality of the northern states; to exercise no violence towards any of them; and, in particular, not to increase the number of troops in the electorate of Hanover.

Scarcely

Scarcely had he agreed to these stipulations than he broke them. Every one is acquainted with the violent manner in which sir George Rumbold was seized; every one knows that the Hanse towns were laid under contribution, under the appellation of loans, not by any means for their interest, but exactly in the same manner as if France had been at war with them. For the first of these injuries, his majesty contented himself with accepting an inadequate satisfaction. Of the second, he took no cognizance, being prevented by the apprehensions and representations on the part of the Hanse towns. His majesty, on his part, did not scruple to make any sacrifice, as the preservation of peace was the dearest wish of his heart.

The patience and sufferance of every other court were exhausted sooner than that of his majesty.—War again broke out on the continent—the situation of the king, with respect to his duty, was more difficult than ever. In order to prevent France from augmenting her troops in Hanover, he had promised to suffer no attack to be made on that territory. The Russians and the Swedes were preparing for an attack upon the French. From this period, the whole burthen of the contract between France and Prussia weighed upon the latter only, without producing to her the least advantage; and by a singular concatenation of circumstances, it seemed that Prussia, who only wished to remain impartial and neutral, could no longer pursue her former system, except to the prejudice of the allied powers. Every advantage which resulted from this situation of affairs was on the side of France; and the king was daily threatened with a

collision not less formidable to him, than decisively favourable to the plans of Napoleon.

Who could have thought that the very moment when the king had given to the French government the strongest proof of his determination, and a singular example of the faithful fulfilment of engagements into which he had once entered, should be chosen by Napoleon to do the king the most sensible injury! Who does not remember the violation of the territory of Anspach, which took place on the third of October, in the last year, notwithstanding the remonstrance of the provincial administration, and of his majesty's minister?

This contest between that moderation which pardons everything—that integrity which remains true to its engagements to the last on the one part; and the abuse of power, the insolence inspired by deceitful fortune, and the habit of only reckoning on this fortune, on the other, continued several years. The king declared to the French government that he considered all his connections with it as dissolved. He placed his armies on a footing suitable to circumstances. He was now fully convinced, that no pledge of security remained for the neighbours of France, but a peace established upon firm principles, and guaranteed by all the powers in common.

His majesty offered the allies to be the mediator in negotiations for such a peace, and to support them with all his force. It is sufficient to know the conditions then proposed, to be convinced of the moderation which, at all times, has governed the politics of his majesty in their whole extent. Prussia at this moment listened not to the voice of revenge; she passed over

the events of the late war, however violent they might have been, since they had been sanctioned by existing treaties. She required nothing but the punctual fulfilment of those treaties; but this she required without limitation. Count Haugwitz repaired to Vienna, where the French emperor then was. Scarcely had this minister been there a few days, when the whole face of affairs was changed; the misfortunes experienced by the court of Vienna had compelled it to sign an armistice, which was immediately followed by a peace. The emperor of Russia sacrificed his magnanimous views to the wish of his ally, and his troops returned home. Prussia stood now alone on the field of contest. His majesty was obliged to limit his policy by his powers; and instead, as had been his wish, of embracing the interest of all Europe, make his own security and that of his neighbours his first object.

[The manifesto then proceeds to recite at length the conduct of Bonaparte with respect to Cleves, Wesel, Hanover, &c.]

It was no longer doubtful that Napoleon had determined to overwhelm Prussia with war, or to render her for ever incapable of war, since it was evident that he was leading her from humiliation to humiliation, till she should be reduced to such a state of political degradation and feebleness, that she could have no other will than that of her formidable neighbour.

The last doubt at length disappeared—troops marched from the interior of France towards the Rhine. The intent to attack Prussia was clear and certain. The king ordered a note to be transmitted by general Knobelsdorff, containing the conditions on which he was

ready to come to an accommodation. These conditions were—

1. That the French troops should immediately evacuate Germany.

2. That France should oppose no obstacle to the formation of the northern confederacy; and that this confederacy might embrace all the larger and smaller states not included in the fundamental act of the confederation of the Rhine.

3. That a negotiation should immediately be commenced for the adjustment of all objects in dispute; a preliminary article of which should be, the restoration of three abbeys, and the separation of the town of Wesel from the French empire.

These conditions speak for themselves; they show how moderate the king has been in his demands, even at this moment, and how much the maintenance of peace, if France wishes peace, depends upon herself.

The term peremptorily fixed by the king for the decision of peace or war has elapsed. His majesty has not received the answer of the cabinet of St. Cloud; or rather, the preparations made around him daily give that answer. The king can henceforth confide the safety and honour of his crown only to arms. He leads to honourable combat an army worthy its former glory.—He reigns over a people of whom he may be proud; and while he is ready to shed his blood for them, he knows what he may expect from energy and affection: princes, the honour of the German name, have joined their banners with his; and a sovereign who honours with his virtues one of the first thrones in the world, is penetrated by the justice of his cause. His arms are blessed by the voice of his people. With so many motives

motives to be conscious of her strength, Prussia may be permitted continually to confide in her high destiny.

DECLARATION OF THE KING OF SWEDEN.

We, Gustavus Adolphus, by the grace of God, king of Sweden, the Goths and Vandals, heir of Denmark and Norway, duke of Sleswig and Holstein, &c. &c. declare and make known, that when we entered upon the government of our kingdom, the unfortunate French revolution had prevailed for some years, while the most sanguinary and unheard-of scenes which had been there perpetrated, had spread discord, insurrection, and war, over the greatest part of Europe. During the nine succeeding years, the French revolution never ceased to threaten an interruption to the general tranquillity, and to excite the attention of every country. Trusting in the fidelity of the Swedish nation, and favoured by its distance from France, we witnessed, without alarm, the furious zeal of the factions, and their tyranny over a divided state, persuading ourselves, that the experience of these great calamities, produced by dissension and oligarchy, might at length be the means of restoring order, and an equitable government, for the security of the French people and other states. This pleasing hope was not fulfilled; the government was indeed frequently changed; but the fundamental principles, so dangerous to all Europe, still remained unaltered. They were not only retained under the consular government, but, in proportion as power came into the hands of the first consul, his ideas of law and

justice were diminished; every thing was now sacrificed to that ambition which usurped an authority over the rights of nations and treaties, and even over that respect which all governments wish to preserve to themselves. The blood of one of the worthy descendants of the ancient and honourable family of France was not long since shed by the hand of violence. This shocking circumstance was not only a specimen of the ideas which the French government entertained of law and equity, but also a most disgusting picture of the system it had adopted; and, in every respect, affording a signal warning to all governments. While this encroachment furnished the great states with such a view, as enabled them to draw the most genuine conclusions respecting the irresistible power of France, the smaller states were converted into provinces, by violence or intrigue; and the danger appeared not less general than overwhelming, as it seemed that security against these menaces was no longer to be found in any distance from the scenes of action.—The most justifiable claims, made by us upon the French government, were fruitless, in obtaining indemnities for the demands made by several of our subjects, respecting unlawful captures, arbitrary freightage, and an illegal embargo—as the lawless proceedings of the French government were carried to such a pitch, as to lay the Swedish commerce under considerable embarrassment in the French ports, during the space of nine months. Such proceedings could only increase the apprehensions entertained of this dangerous conduct, and excite, as it doubtless has in every loyal Swede, a wish for the organization of an adequate counterpoise against

a power which had so rashly committed itself in its endeavours to obtain a superiority, and availed itself of every unjust means to obtain the end proposed.—But as no state was powerful enough to escape the effects of these practices, we hoped that the general experience of these outrages would finally produce an union of efforts to remove this common nuisance, and effectually to resist that power, the object of which was, by degrees, to subjugate all others. This period has at length arrived, and the greatest powers in Europe have taken the field, to support their own dignity and independence. We have united ourselves with them in every worthy and friendly connection, and, for the purpose of sharing in all undertakings, have drawn closer the ties of amity; and we hope, with the assistance of Providence, to contribute to the restoration of the general tranquillity. With this view, we have now passed over, with a part of our army, to Pomerania, there to unite our power with the Russian forces; and further, to act with energy in such a manner as circumstances may require. In consequence of this laudable and weighty determination, we fully expect to be accompanied by the blessings and prayers of our faithful subjects, as it is our purpose to contend for the future independence and the honour of the Swedish name. And since it has been our care, that, during our absence, the administration of public affairs should be preserved, and carried on without obstruction, in its usual course, we have graciously thought proper to establish a regency, and to nominate and appoint, as members of the same, the Swedish baron Wrangle, bailiff of the empire, president, &c.; count Charles Axel,

major-general, &c.; count Samuel Ugglas, lieutenant-general, and inspector of the cavalry, &c.; baron Brock Cederstrom, president of our chancery, and commandant of the order of the northern star; baron Frederick William Ehrenheim, our chancellor of the court; and our adjutant-generals of the fleets and armies. Our gracious will and pleasure, therefore, is, that all our loving subjects and faithful servants, of high and low degree, shall yield the same obedience and obsequiousness to the regency appointed in our royal name, as to ourself. To this end, all whom it may concern are commanded to conform themselves; and for the better security of the same, we have, with our own hand, signed this present, and verified it with our royal seal.

(L. S.) GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.
M. ROSENBLAD.

DECLARATION OF THE EMPEROR
OF RUSSIA.

We, Alexander the First, by God's grace emperor and autocrat of all the Russias, declare and make known to all our faithful subjects, that, in our incessant care and solicitude for the welfare of the interior of our empire, equally with its foreign relations, it has ever been our wish to establish them upon an immoveable basis, and to defend the state by such alliances as the situation of our country may require. With this view, we have thought proper, from the commencement of our reign, to remove every cause of misunderstanding, and, by a friendly conduct, to unite with those powers whose wise and moderate principles were consistent with their independence and the general tranquillity.

The

The Most High blessed our wishes and endeavours, and at that period bestowed upon Europe a general peace. However, it did not consist with his inscrutable providence to prolong the continuance of this order of things—war broke out again. But as our situation did not permit us to take any immediate part in the war, we never ceased to remain faithful to our allies; and to continue to wish and labour for peace and tranquillity, consistently with the common welfare, by every friendly interference in our power. But, notwithstanding this interference, the daily increase of the French power, the situation of our allies, threatened by its aggrandizement and its unbounded ambition, compelled us to take an active part in this war. We took up arms, but we did not cease to wish for peace; and we also declared, in our ukase of September 1, 1805, that the object of our arming was to preserve the sacred inviolability of treaties, and to restore the general tranquillity. The misfortunes which attended the arms of the allies operated against the realization of our views: however, the principles upon which they were grounded remained unchanged. At the commencement of the present year, the French government manifested an inclination approximating to peace: we accordingly issued orders to enter into discussions with them immediately. The restoration of a peace consistent with the dignity and security of our empire, the advantage of our allies, and the general tranquillity of Europe, were laid down as the fundamental bases of these discussions. But to our regret, the conditions of peace agreed to with France by M. d'Oubril were neither consistent with the dignity of our empire, nor with the security of

our allies. We refused to ratify those conditions. But at the same time, to afford a proof of the immutability of our principles, which, under various circumstances, had been ever directed to the same end, we at that time made known the conditions on which we were disposed to renew our negotiations with the French government. The bases proposed by us are so moderate, that they cannot be rejected without an open menace of the general safety; and they are so consistent with the advantage of every power concerned, that in case of their being accepted, a general peace must not only follow, but be confirmed to Europe upon the most permanent footing. Thus must peace, or the continuance of the war, be the consequences of these measures. We wish for peace; but if no lasting peace can be obtained, grounded upon mutual advantage, then it will be necessary, for the honour of the Russian name, the sacred character of our engagements, and the general deliverance of Europe, to proceed to extremities, which, on these considerations, cannot but appear to us as absolutely indispensable. We are convinced that each of our faithful subjects, animated with the love of their country, impelled by a sense of honour, and surrounded by examples of patriotic zeal, will speedily unite their powerful efforts with our own, as soon as the safety of Russia, the voice of glory, and our command, shall call upon them to co-operate for the public good. In this firm reliance upon the help of God, and the zeal of our faithful subjects, we have thought it necessary to apprise you before-hand of our views; and in so doing to afford you a new proof, that in all our undertakings we neither seek the extension of our territory,

tory, nor the fleeting glory of victories; but that it is our wish and endeavour to secure the general safety, the preservation of our allies, and the dignity of our empire.

Given at St. Petersburg, August 30, and in the sixth year of our government.

ALEXANDER.

Countersigned by the minister for foreign affairs,

ANDRE BUDBERG.

Note delivered by order of his Swedish majesty to the ministers of the two allied courts accredited to the king.

The entrance of the Swedish troops into the duchy of Lauenburg, and the peaceable re-occupation of that country in the name of his Britannic majesty, having restored affairs to the situation in which they were previous to the commencement of hostilities between Sweden and Prussia, and produced a result satisfactory to the king and his ally, the undersigned has the honour to inform N. N. by the express order of his majesty, that he has caused to cease the measures hitherto adopted against the ports and commerce of his majesty the king of Prussia, of which N. N. was informed at the time by the notes of his excellency the grand marshal count de Fersen, dated the 27th of April, and 6th of May last. In consequence, the necessary orders have been given to raise entirely the blockade of the ports of Prussia, as also to take off the embargo laid on the vessels of that power, which were in the ports of Sweden.

Requesting N. N. to convey to the knowledge of his court the contents of this note, the under-

signed avails himself of the present opportunity to repeat, &c.

Head-quarters, at Griefswald,
Sept. 3, 1806.

NOTE.

His majesty the king of Sweden having caused this duchy to be taken possession of by his troops in the name of our most gracious sovereign and master, has given us orders to resume again the administration, and to replace things in their former state. In consequence the orders of the commission of organization and administration will cease to be executed, the royal seal of our sovereign will be again brought into use, all the marks of foreign sovereignty will be removed, in a peaceable manner, however, and without suffering any excesses in the execution of these measures, in which case the Swedish force may be called out. The old custom-house arms shall be replaced; and to prevent all ulterior difficulties whatever, we think it our duty not to permit the sending to Hanover of the money belonging to the publick chests, until further orders.

Ratzeburg, Aug. 31, 1806.

By the high bailiff of his majesty the king of Great Britain, elector of Brunswick Lunenburg, deputed to the government of the duchy of Lauenburg, the privy-councillors, and councillors of administration.

(Signed) VON HAKE.

Letter from M. De Wetterstedt, private secretary to his Swedish majesty, to M. d'Alopeus, Russian minister to Sweden, at Nieuburg.

Head-quarters, Griefswald,
April 6, 1806.

Sir,---I have this day received the letter

letter of the 3d instant, which you did me the honour of writing to me, and which I lost no time in laying before the king my master. It is by his orders that I take the earliest opportunity of communicating to you his intentions respecting the important subject of your official dispatch.

His majesty was not in the least surprised at the demand made by the Prussian government, concerning the evacuation of the territory of Lauenburg, for he has been a long time in expectation of it; and particularly as he considers his new proceeding as a natural consequence of the system of his Prussian majesty. Any attack upon the Swedish troops in the Lauenburg would be, in effect, a formal declaration of war against Sweden, and would put the final seal to this system, by proving that the court of Berlin is even ready to shed blood to promote to their full extent the ambitious views of Bonaparte. His majesty has nothing to reproach himself with. He has only followed what the principles and the interests of his ally dictated to him.

With such motives for his guide, his majesty will make no alteration in the measures he has adopted, and will not assuredly, upon the eve of hostilities, make choice of that moment to withdraw his troops from a province, which consequently would fall under the authority of a power as foreign to the wishes of its inhabitants, as it is contrary to the express will of its sovereign.

The result of these observations is, that the king has ordered me to communicate to you, that his majesty is determined to abide the consequences of the approaching events; that strong in the justice of his cause, and relying implicitly upon

the decrees of providence, he is resolved to meet whatever circumstances may result from the present crisis of affairs.

WETTERSTEDT.

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE.

The new treaty of confederation signed at Paris, on the 12th of July, and exchanged at Munich on the 25th of the same month, consists of forty articles. The preamble states, that experience having shown that the Germanic constitution can give no kind of security for either internal or external peace to the south of Germany, the contracting parties to this treaty, viz. his majesty the emperor of the French on the one part, and on the other the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, the elector arch-chancellor and the elector of Baden, the duke of Berg, the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, the princes of Nassau, Weilberg-Usingen, of Hohenzollern, Hechingen, Siezmaringen, of Salm Salm, and Salm Herburg, of Isenburg Bristein, and of Lichtenstein, the duke of Ahrentberg, and the count of Leyn, have agreed to the following articles:

Art. 1. The states of the above princes are for ever separated from the German political body, and united by a particular confederation, under the name of the Confederated States of the Rhine.

Art. 2. All the laws of the empire are abrogated and null with respect to these states.

Art. 3. Each of the contracting princes renounces all such titles as have a relation to the old constitution of the empire; and on the first of August ensuing they will formally declare their separation from the German empire.

Art.

Art. 4. The elector arch-chancellor receives the title of prince primate and most eminent highness; which, however, confers no prerogative inconsistent with the full sovereignty enjoyed by the other contracting parties.

Art. 5. The elector of Baden, the duke of Berg, and the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, take the title of grand dukes and royal highnesses, and enjoy all the rights, prerogatives, and homage due to the regal dignity. Rank and precedence among them shall be according as they are named in the first article. The head of the house of Nassau shall take the title of duke, and the count of Leyn that of prince.

Art. 6. The common interests of the confederated states shall be discussed in an assembly of the league or diet, the seat of which shall be at Frankfort, and the assembly shall be divided into two colleges, that of the kings, and that of the princes.

Art. 7. The members of this confederation shall be independent of any foreign power, nor enter into any kind of service, except with the states in the confederation.

Art. 8. No member shall alienate his sovereignty, either in whole or in part, except in favour of a confederate.

Art. 9. All disputes which may arise between the members of the confederation shall be decided in the assembly of the league, at Frankfort.

Art. 10. The prince primate shall be president in the college of kings, and the duke of Nassau in that of the princes.

Art. 11. Within a month after the declaration has been made at Ratisbon, the prince primate of the confederation shall draw up a constitution-statute, which shall deter-

mine when the assembly shall be convoked, and the objects and form of its deliberation.

Art. 12. The emperor Napoleon shall be declared protector of the alliance; and in quality of protector, whenever the prince primate dies, he shall appoint his successor.

The articles, &c. to 23 inclusive stipulate the different cessions and acquisitions of the confederates. Thus Nassau cedes to Berg the town of Deuss and its territory, Bavaria acquires the imperial city of Nuremberg and its territory, and the prince primate the imperial city of Frankfort.

Art. 21. The members of the confederation subject to their sovereignty all the princes, counts, and lords, within the circle of the allied territory. [Then follows a detail of the division, by which several of the more considerable principalities are divided among two, three, or more new sovereigns; as for example, the territories of Hohenlohe between Bavaria and Wurtemberg; those of Saxia among three, and those of Furstenburg among four different sovereigns.]

Art. 26. Defines the rights of sovereignty, legislation, judicial authority, the police, military conscription, and impost.

Art. 27. The subjected princes and counts shall retain their domains, seignorial rights, &c.

The 35th article stipulates, that there shall be an alliance between the emperor of the French and the confederated states, by virtue of which every continental war in which either of the two parties shall be engaged, shall be common to both.

Art. 36. Should a foreign or neighbouring power arm, the contracting parties shall likewise arm, to prevent surprise. The notification

tion for such arming shall be made by the emperor Napoleon. The contingent or the allies shall be divided into four parts, and the assembly of the league shall determine how many of those parts shall be put in motion.

Art. 37. Bavaria engages to fortify the cities of Augsburgh and Lindau, and to make them depôts of artillery, arms, ammunition, and provisions.

Art. 38. The contingents of the several allied powers shall be as follows:—France, 200,000 men; Bavaria, 30,000; Wurtemberg, 12,000; Baden, 8,000; Berg, 5,000; Darmstadt, 4,000; Nassau-Hohenzollern, and others, 4,000.

Art. 39. The contracting parties will admit other German princes and states into the alliance, when it shall be found suitable to the common interest.

Art. 40. The ratification of this treaty shall be exchanged at Munich on the 25th July.

Signed by the Plenipotentiaries of the contracting parties.

Paris, July 12th, 1806.

The instrument of the act of ratification was signed by the emperor at St. Cloud, on the 19th of July, and countersigned by the minister Talleyrand, and secretary of state.

MARET.

CIRCULAR NOTE,

Addressed to their majesties, imperial and royal highnesses, dukes and most serene princes, associated in the confederation of the Rhine, on the part of the prince primate of the confederation.

The prince primate of the confederation has the honour to inform their majesties, imperial and serene highnesses, &c. &c. that his minister plenipotentiary baron d'Albini

repaired to Frankfort at the beginning of this month, to make preparations in his name for the opening of the Diet, in as much as might accord with the intentions of the associated kings and sovereigns. The act of confederation having designated that term for proposing a fundamental statute, the opening of the sittings will depend probably upon the arrival of the plenipotentiaries. Ardently desiring to deserve the confidence of the associated kings and princes, the prince primate regards it as the first duty of his office, not to propose any thing which might not be generally acknowledged as of essential advantage to the confederation, as well as consistent with the perfect independence of the confederated sovereigns.

“ If the formation of a fundamental statute cannot be the work of a day, and that an object of such importance requires the most mature reflection, it is notwithstanding equally true, that it is desirable that the confederation should from its commencement be established upon an immoveable basis. Its object is to obtain tranquillity and serenity, the true happiness of nations, and to enable sovereigns to occupy themselves without interruption in the prosperity of their states, in increasing the happiness of the towns and country, by the enlightened attention of a prudent and paternal government, and by the encouragement of useful arts and sciences, the true sources of the splendour of august dynasties and sovereign houses. The south of Germany, after ages of misfortunes, troubles, and wars, cannot but ardently wish that its eternal happiness should be established upon an imperishable basis. The prince primate submits to the wisdom of the confederated kings

kings and princes the decision of the question, whether the fundamental maxim of the inviolability of the territory of the confederation, be not the first and most important of all the bases of the public prosperity? Whether it be agreeable to the high wisdom of the confederated kings and princes never to allow a passage to foreign troops, though even disarmed, without the consent of the entire confederation? And, finally, if it be not also conformable to the dignity of independent sovereigns, that the representatives at the diet of Frankfort, engaged in assuring domestic tranquillity, should neither send ministers to, nor receive them from foreign courts; a right which is naturally reserved to each of the august kings and sovereigns, and not to a meeting of their plenipotentiaries.

“If the diet of Frankfort should hereafter apply to his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy, as protector, to obtain his guarantee of such an inviolability of the territory of the confederation, we may be allowed to entertain a hope that this favour, one of the first importance, will not be refused on the part of that great man, who has known how to respect the inviolability of one of the most important countries in the world, notwithstanding the obstacles which appeared to oppose it.

The prince primate submits these observations to the kings, princes, &c. &c. associated in the confederation of the Rhine, and will always feel happy if his zealous disinterestedness can deserve their confidence and approbation.

CHARLES.

Aschaffenburg, Sept. 18, 1806.

ABSTRACT OF THE PROCEEDINGS
FOR REMITTING THE MOUTHS OF
THE CATTARO TO THE RUSSIANS
AND MONTENEGRINS.

Copy of a letter from the marquis de Ghisilieri to M. de Zanino, an officer of the regiment of Thurn, and communicated by that officer to his comrades, by desire of the marquis de Ghisilieri.

Castelnovo, 6th March, 1806.

Sir,—As in the difficult circumstances in which I have found myself placed, nothing could lie nearer my heart than not to decide any thing which could displease so brave and so estimable a garrison as that of Cattaro, and as besides, according to what lieutenant d'Esembergh has informed me, I have reason to fear that I have not entirely accomplished my object, I avail myself of the personal knowledge which I had the happiness to have of you, sir, to make to you amicably two observations only, and to beg of you to communicate them also to your comrades.

1st. It is not to the summons of a power at war with our august master, and still less at the demand of the Montenegrins, with whom I have not even entered into treaty, but only to the reiterated summons of a Russian commandant that I have taken the resolution of withdrawing the troops of his majesty from this province; and consequently it is only by the express wish of a court in friendship and alliance with our own, and against which superior orders are very precise, not to use other means than those of declarations and protests, and never any measures of armed defence.

2dly. I have not entered into any capitulation with the Russian commandant, which I should never have

I have concluded without the consent of the army; but I have simply confined myself to making the necessary protests and declarations, to leave no room of complaint against our court by the French, and to insure the respect due in all circumstances to the flag and troops of his majesty.

According to these very clear observations, you will yourself see, sir, that the part which I have taken is a measure altogether political, and the only one which circumstances permit, and not a measure in any respect military; which I ought to tranquillize yourself and your brave comrades respecting every consequence which you might apprehend from it, to the disadvantage of your reputation, already too well ensured among the army and the public, to be implicated by a measure wholly foreign to military affairs.

By my readiness to enter with you and for you, with all the officers, into such details, you will judge of the value which I affix to your esteem and good will, and I send two lines in answer, which may be directed to me, to the care of the imperial consulat Ragusa, will give me much pleasure. I am, with perfect respect, yours, &c.

(Signed) GHISILIERI.

(Copy of a letter written by the marquis de Ghisilieri to general Molitor, governor of Dalmatia and Albania.

Zacortaz, 9th March, 1806.

General—The same motives of prudence which induced me to precede the troops destined to occupy the mouths of the Cattaro, under the necessity of ordering the troops of my august master to be withdrawn, not so much to avert new dangers from a brave garrison, who

desired nothing better than to fight, as to preserve from pillage and total ruin a province, which is already the property of his majesty the emperor of France and king of Italy.

The fury with which the Montenegrins, raised in a mass by their chief pontiff, menaced the provinces, and the enthusiasm entertained, in common with them, among the inhabitants of the mouths of the Cattaro, by the sectaries of the Greek religion, who form three-fourths of the population, had for some time alarmed the government, when a Russian squadron, which came to anchor at Porte Rose, the 27th ult. in the evening, contributed further to paralyse the little means that might be employed to frustrate the projects of the Montenegrins. The days of the twenty-eighth of February and the first and second of March were employed in inundating the province by some thousands of Montenegrins, reinforced by the inhabitants of Zuppa, Commoni, and Pastrovicchio; and when this horde was already in motion to attack the forts guarded by Austrian troops, the commandant of the Russian squadron summoned, the 3d March, the governor of Cattaro to give up all the forts, or to declare himself the enemy of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, and he next day reiterated to me the same summons, in the peremptory terms of half an hour, always according to the principle, that the mouths of the Cattaro were already French territory, from the day that the delay of two months fixed for their occupation by the French troops were expired. At a moment so pressing, persuaded as I was that the valour of the garrison would not have been sufficient against a number of Montenegrins, infinitely

infinitely superior, nor against the fire which the squadron might have made upon the forts, and likewise persuaded that the devastation of the province would have been the consequence of my refusal, I thought it my duty to yield to the force of circumstances, and not to have recourse to violent means, after having in vain exhausted those of persuasion and protests; and by such a conduct I saved to my august master brave troops, and preserved for yours, general, the mouths of the Cattaro in a flourishing state.

I flatter myself that, in this respect, the part which I have taken will not merit the disapprobation of his majesty, my august master, and will not excite the smallest complaint on the part of the French government; which will be the most pleasant recompense for the troubles of every kind which I have suffered, and even the dangers which I have run these last days.

I have the honour, &c.

(Signed) GHISILIERI.

Note to the marquis de Ghisilieri.

The undersigned commissary-general of his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy, has had the honour to receive from the marquis de Ghisilieri, commissary-general of his majesty the emperor of Germany and Austria, the answer to his note of the 21st of March; in which he announces to the undersigned, that he has dispatched that note to his court; and that he further refers to the answer given to general Molitor respecting the same grievances.

The undersigned hastened to ask of general Molitor the answer spoken of by the marquis de Ghisi-

lieri; it is dated the 9th March, 1806, from Zacortaz.

In that answer, the marquis de Ghisilieri makes known that the garrison of Cattaro wished only to fight; the undersigned is so much the more persuaded of it, that he positively knows that protests have been made by the officers of the regiment of Thurn, against giving up the forts to the Russians, that some officers were put under arrest for that protest, and that generally all the officers and soldiers of that regiment testify their indignation at having given up the forts of the mouths of the Cattaro to a small number of Russians, who would not have made the smallest resistance against the regiment of Thurn, composed of 1,500 men.

But notwithstanding all these protests, the forts of the mouths of the Cattaro were given up to the Russians by order of the marquis de Ghisilieri.

The undersigned has the honour to beg of the marquis de Ghisilieri to inform him, whether he has acted in this circumstance by his own authority, or in virtue of superior orders; for it is essential that he should make known to his court the reasons for which the Austrian commandant and the marquis de Ghisilieri have peaceably allowed entrance, and a residence in the ports of the mouth of the Cattaro, to the armed squadron of a power at war with that to which they were to have given up the forts, and to whose generals they gave no information.

It is also important that the undersigned should inform his court of the motives on which the mouths of the Cattaro have been ceded to the Russians, instead of being given up to the troops of his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy,

Italy, conformably to the treaty of Presburg.

The reason given by the marquis de Ghisilieri, in his letter to general Molitor, of the 9th of March, cannot be admitted. He there says, that it is to preserve to his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy, the mouths of the Cattaro in a flourishing state, that he has given them up to the Russians and Montenegrins.

But only two days after their surrender, the Montenegrins sacked and pillaged the houses; and those very inhabitants which the marquis de Ghisilieri represents as in accord with the Montenegrins, armed themselves and marched against them, and even killed several.

The same inhabitants stretch their arms to the French, and bitterly complain that they have been given up to their most cruel enemies.

The undersigned expects with impatience an answer from the marquis de Ghisilieri, and persists in the demands which he made in his note of the 21st March. He conceives the marquis de Ghisilieri must be invested with the necessary powers to comply with them, since he had that of commanding the garrison of Cattaro, notwithstanding its protest, to give up to the Russians the forts of the mouths of the Cattaro.

He has the honour to give him the assurance of his great respect.

(Signed) AL. LAURISTON.
Zura, 25th March, 1806.

ROYAL DECREE.

Louis Napoleon, by the grace of God, and the constitution of the kingdom.

We have decreed, and do decree as follows:

1. Till further orders be given, no vessel shall be suffered to depart from any of the ports of our kingdom, without our special authority; which, however, shall not be granted by us till sureties be given that the lading shall not be discharged in any of the enemy's ports. The authority for the departure of any vessel shall be signed by our own hand.

2. Every ship that enters any of our ports shall be detained, without any possibility of liberation, but by special authority, from us, signed by our own hand.

3. All fishing vessels going out or coming into any port, shall, before their departure, and after their arrival, be examined by the officers of justice, and the commissioners of convoys and licences.

4. No fishing vessel shall be allowed to depart before the commanders of the same shall make oath, that they will have no voluntary understanding or communication whatever with any ship or vessel, and they shall likewise be bound to give information of any person sailing therein.

5. The directors and other persons employed at the post-offices are made responsible for any letters coming from or going to England. They shall immediately transmit them to the minister of justice and police.

6. Our ministers are charged with the execution of the present decree, as far as regards their respective departments. The ministers of marine, finances, and of justice, shall transmit to us daily an account of their proceedings.

Given at our palace of the Hague, Dec. 15, 1806, and in the first year of our reign.

(Signed) Louis.

PUBLIC ACTS passed in the Fourth Session of the Second Imperial Parliament.

March 22, 1806.

An act for settling a pension on admiral lord Collingwood.

An act for duties and drawbacks on goods to and from Ireland.

An act for settling drawbacks on sugar.

An act for punishing mutiny and desertion, and for better payment of the army.

An act for regulating the marine force while on shore.

An act for allowing the exportation of grain &c. to his majesty's forces and garrisons.

An act to indemnify persons having omitted to qualify themselves for employments.

An act to continue and amend an act for executing a treaty of commerce and amity with America.

An act to permit for a time the exportation of wool to the British plantations in America.

An act for the militia service for the year 1806.

An act for the militia service of Ireland for 1806.

An act to extend the provisions of an act, enabling the subjects of foreign states to enter his majesty's service.

An act to suspend prosecutions under certain acts relating to the woollen manufacture.

An act for allowing the Greenland ships to complete their men.

An act for rendering the payment of creditors more certain and expeditious in Scotland.

June 9.

An act to provide for payment

of the bank of Ireland, and for altering the days of paying interest.

An act for establishing certain regulations in the collection of customs and excise in Ireland.

An act for regulating the package of butter in Ireland.

An act to authorise certain public officers to send and receive letters free of postage.

An act for amending the several laws relating to the payment of first-fruits by the clergy.

An act for enlarging the powers granted to the London dock company.

June 21.

An act for granting to his majesty certain duties on malt and spirits.

An act for the better payment of the army and their quarters.

An act for making better provision for soldiers.

July 8.

An act to grant allowances from certain taxes to persons having a certain number of children.

An act to provide for the collecting duties on spirits distilled in Ireland.

An act for abolishing fees received by officers in the port of London.

An Act for regulating the office of receiver-general of the post-office.

An act for encouraging the manufacture of thread-lace in Great Britain.

An act for regulating the mode of taking up regular ships for the service of the India company.

An act for the improvement of the port of London, by making East India docks at Blackwall.

July 16.

An act for collecting duties on spirits and malt in Scotland.

An act for issuing exchequer bills for the service of the year 1806.

An act granting a duty on fish from Newfoundland.

An act for regulating the excise, customs, and port dues in Ireland.

An act for rectifying mistakes in the names of commissioners of taxes.

Training act for England.

Militia act.

An act for permitting free interchange of grain between England and Ireland.

An act for the more effectual performance of quarantine.

An act for granting a duty on oil of vitriol exported from Great Britain.

An act for amending certain acts relating to letters and parcels conveyed by the post.

July 31.

An act for reducing the duty payable on the exportation of refined sugar and laying it on sugar-candy.

An act for an additional duty on the exportation of silk manufactures.

An act for erecting a light-house on the Bell rock in Scotland.

An act to enable his majesty to accept the service of volunteers from the Irish militia.

An act for augmenting the salaries of masters in chancery.

An act for amending the sale of his majesty's crown-rents, &c. in Ireland.

An act for amending the laws of

excise in relation to counterfeiting the stamps on paper-wrappers.

An act to permit French wines to be imported from Ireland into England.

An act to amend an act preventing the importation of gunpowder and arms from Ireland into England.

An act to allow certain merchandises to be sent direct from Gibraltar and Malta to America.

An act for permitting the importation of timber for naval purposes from America.

An act for the relief of insolvent debtors.

An act for revision of the schools in Ireland.

An act to prohibit for two years certain ships from engaging in the slave-trade.

An act for increasing the rate of subsistence to be paid to persons on whom soldiers are quartered.

July 22.

An act for enabling his majesty to settle annuities on the royal family.

An act for appropriating the supplies of 1806.

An act for granting a sum to be raised by lotteries.

An act for purchasing an estate for earl Nelson.

An act to continue his pension to lord Rodney.

An act for amending the laws of excise upon malt.

An act for the security and expedition of the post in Ireland.

An act for consolidating the several acts for redemption of land-tax.

An act for providing for a more speedy and regular audit of the public accounts.

An act to repeal part of the contravailing duty on Irish hops, and for

for granting an excise contravailing duty on Irish window glass.

An act for extending the laws relating to loading and warehousing goods.

An act to amend the laws of bankrupts.

An act for augmenting the regular forces of the realm, and for the gradual reduction of the militia so far as the same relates to the city of London.

An act for limiting the number of persons to be carried on the outside of stage-coaches.

July 23.

An act for applying the balances

of the forfeited estates in Scotland to the making canals, bridges, &c. and to the use of the fisheries.

An act for regulating the office of receiver-general of the customs.

An act for the preservation of the public harbours of the united kingdom.

An act to stay proceedings, till next session, in actions under an act for regulating the cutting of leather, and the purchase of rough hides, oak-bark, and calf skins in the hair.

An act for taking down the buildings, in which the treasury chamber &c. in Scotland were situated, and erecting new ones.

LITERARY SELECTIONS

AND

RETROSPECT.

BIOGRAPHICAL ANECDOTES AND CHARACTERS.

MEMOIRS of DR. JOSEPH WARTON.

[From Mr. WOOLL's BIOGRAPHY of the DOCTOR.]

“FROM the earliest period of his boyish days, till he entered into his fourteenth year, Dr. Warton was chiefly indebted to his excellent father for knowledge and instruction. On the 2d of August 1736, he was admitted on the foundation of Winchester College; and whilst under the tuition and discipline of that school,

Where Bigg presided, and where Burton taught,

exhibited the most evident marks of strong intellectual powers. During his Wykehamical education, he, in conjunction with his friend Collins and another boy, sent to the Gentleman's Magazine three poetical pieces of such sterling value as called forth a most flattering critique from Johnson; and I have seen, though in too imperfect a state to warrant insertion, a genuinely humorous poem penned by him when a præpositor, and spoken by one of his pupils from the rostrum, then usually introduced into the school.”——

“In the month of September,

1740, being superannuated, he was removed from Winchester; and, as few vacancies occurred, in the course of the current year, at New College, Oxford, it was the involuntary misfortune of that society not to reckon amongst its fellows the editor of Virgil and commentator on Pope: he, therefore, about this time commenced his residence at Oriel College, of which he had been admitted a commoner in the preceding January, and very soon gave ample proofs that he had not neglected the blessing of a mind so highly gifted.—I can form no idea of the “*laudis arrecta cupido*,” fostered by the sacred ardour of gratitude and filial piety, exhibiting a more highly finished portrait than in the following letter:

‘Hon. Sir,

‘I hop'd to have found a thousand kindly severe criticisms on Wintonia, when I opened yours; but, alas, am quite deceived! I believe “*Bellositum Wintoniense*” may be a more proper name, and even more suitable to the verses
42 already

‘ already made. Let me only ob-
 ‘ serve one thing, that I have pur-
 ‘ posely avoided saying more of
 ‘ the college, because it is so trite
 ‘ and common a subject: but per-
 ‘ haps I have said too little—this
 ‘ your judgment will determine.
 ‘ But have I not kept too near
 ‘ home, and not sought over the
 ‘ country for seats, antiquities, and
 ‘ such like? This is owing to my
 ‘ ignorance on these points. If you
 ‘ would have had me mention these,
 ‘ perhaps even Abbotstone, Strat-
 ‘ ton; Lord Peterborough’s, &c.
 ‘ might claim a place. The Bel-
 ‘ lositum Oxoniense has taken in
 ‘ Whitcham, Islip (as you know)
 ‘ and others; but these are more
 ‘ remarkable than those I mention-
 ‘ ed. As to the time, if I receive
 ‘ it again (as the present situation
 ‘ of affairs are, and nothing unusual
 ‘ happen) by the 20th or 21st of
 ‘ May, it is soon enough. I have
 ‘ applied to several of my friends
 ‘ for Themes, and cannot by any
 ‘ means get any from them, so that
 ‘ I am obliged still to send you my
 ‘ own stuff; but from them per-
 ‘ haps you may perceive the manner
 ‘ of others, which consist of short
 ‘ turns and such affected puerilities
 ‘ as I am afraid you by no means
 ‘ approve of. This I can affirm,
 ‘ that the old way of composing
 ‘ them by explanation, example,
 ‘ simile, inference, conclusion, &c.
 ‘ is, nor has been (as far as I can
 ‘ learn) ever made use of here.—To
 ‘ help me in some parts of my last
 ‘ collections from Longinus, I have
 ‘ read a good part of Dionysius
 ‘ Halicarnassus: so that I think
 ‘ by this time I ought fully to un-
 ‘ derstand the structure and dispo-
 ‘ sition of words and sentences. I
 ‘ shall read Longinus as long as I
 ‘ live: it is impossible not to catch

‘ fire and and raptures from his
 ‘ glowing style. The noble causes
 ‘ he gives (at the conclusion) for
 ‘ the decay of the sublime amongst
 ‘ men, to wit—the love of pleasure,
 ‘ riches, and idleness, would almost
 ‘ make one look down upon the world
 ‘ with contempt, and rejoice in, and
 ‘ wish for toils, poverty, and dan-
 ‘ gers, to combat with. For me, it
 ‘ only still serves to give me a greater
 ‘ distaste, contempt, and hatred of
 ‘ the profanum vulgus, and to tread
 ‘ under foot this ἀγεννέστατον πά-
 ‘ θος, as thoroughly below and un-
 ‘ worthy of man. It is the freedom
 ‘ you give me of unburdening my
 ‘ soul to you, that has troubled
 ‘ you so long: but so it is, that the
 ‘ next pleasant thing to conversing
 ‘ with you, and hearing from you,
 ‘ is writing to you: I promise my-
 ‘ self a more exalted degree of
 ‘ pleasure next vacation, by being
 ‘ in some measure better skilled to
 ‘ converse with you than formerly.
 ‘ Happy shall I be if I am not only
 ‘ found

‘ a dutiful and affectionate,

‘ but a diligent son too.

April 10th.

‘ J. WARTON.’

Tuesday.

‘ A great many thanks for the
 ‘ token.’

“ During his residence in Oxford
 he composed *The Enthusiast*, or
Lover of Nature; a poem replete
 with the happiest efforts of imagi-
 nation, and truly worthy of

That bard who rapture found
 In ev’ry rural sight, or sound;
 Whose genius warm, and rapture chaste,
 No genuine charm of nature past.

“ His inimitably characteristic
 piece entitled *The Dying Indian*,
 and the elegant satire of *Ranelagh*
House, after the manner of *Le Sage*,
 made

made their appearance also about this time. Nor were his vacations passed in indolence and dissipation. Did no other proof exist of his genuinely poetical mind, of his capacity as a *maker* and *inventor*, the following sketch, laid out by him as a subject for verse, at eighteen (the year in which he left Winchester school), and dated from his father's house, would be sufficient to establish his reputation.

“The subjects of Reason having lately rebelled against him, he summons them to his court, that they may pay their obedience to him; whilst he sits on his throne, attended by the Virtues, his handmaids. The first who made her appearance was *Fear*, with *Superstition*, a pale-faced, trembling virgin, who came from Gallia, and was ever present at earthquakes, fires, sieges, storms, and shuddered at every thing she saw. Not so *Anger*, whose harbinger was *Cruelty*, with dishevelled hair; and whose charioteer, *Revenge*, drove wheels reeking with blood. He himself stood upright, brandishing a sword, and bearing a shield on which was engraven Achilles dragging the carcass of Hector, with Priam and Andromache lamenting on the walls; round his girdle he tied the head of an enemy just slaughtered, and his chariot was drawn by tigers. Next came *Joy*, chanting a song, crowned with vine leaves, waving a rod in his hand, at whose touch every thing smiled; he was attended by *Mirth* and *Pleasure*, two nymphs more light than Napæans: he was the institutor of feasts and dances amongst shepherds, at a vintage, at marriages and triumphs. Then came *Sorrow*, with a dead babe in her arms:—she was often seen in charnels and by graves,

listening to knells, or walking in the dead of night, and lamenting aloud; nor was she absent from dungeons and galley slaves. After her *Courage*, a young man riding a lion, that chafed with indignation, yet was forced to submit—not a fiercer roars in Ægypt whilst the pyramids reecho to his voice: naked, like an Englishman, blowing an horn, he was seen to attend Regulus to Carthage, Henry the Fifth to Agincourt, Moluc, Charles of Sweden, Kouli Khan, &c. He led *Cowardice* chained, who shuddered violently whenever he heard the horn, and would fain run away—so the beasts run when they hear the rattle-snake. Next came *Æmulation*, with harp and sword: he followed a phantom of *Fame*, that he might snatch the crown she wore: he was accompanied by a beautiful Amazon, called *Hope*, who with one hand pointed to the heavens, and in the other held an optic which beautified and magnified every object to which it was directed. *Pity* led her old father *Despair*, who tore his grey locks, and could scarce move along for extreme misery; she nursed him with her own milk, and supported his steps, whilst bats and owls flew round his head. She frequents fields of battle, protects the slain, and stanches their wounds with her veil and hair. Next came *Love*, supported on each side by *Friendship* and *Truth*, but not blind, as the poets feign. Behind came his enemies, *Jealousy*, who nursed a vulture to feed on his own heart. *Hatred* also, and *Doubt* shaking a dart behind *Love*, who, on his turning round, immediately vanish'd. *Honour*, twin'd round about with a snake, like Laocoon. Then *Ambition* in a chariot of gold, and

white horses, whose trappings were adorned with jewels, led by *Esteem* and *Flattery*. *Envy* viewed him passing, and repined like a pard with a dart in his side. *Contempt*, too, like a satyr, beheld, and pointed with his finger; but he too often reviled Heaven, whence plagues, pestilences, wars, and famines. When these were all met, Reason (sitting grander than Solomon), on whom the man *Justice*, and the woman *Temperance*, attended, thus addressed them.

“Were the passions ever more happily personified? or the vivida vis animi more unquestionably portrayed in a boy of eighteen? On taking his bachelor’s degree, for which he determined in Lent 1744, he was ordained on his father’s curacy, and officiated in that church till February 1746; at which period he removed to the duty of Chelsea, and within three months caught the small pox. Tenderly nursed by the mother he idolized, he soon recovered, and went to Chobham, for change of air. A return to his last curacy being rendered unpleasant, by disagreeable altercations in the parish, and the want of that support from his rector which his situation claimed, he, after a few months spent in discharging the ministerial duties of Chawton and Droxford, returned to Basingstoke; and in the year 1747-8 was presented by the duke of Bolton to the rectory of Wynslade, when he immediately married miss Daman of that neighbourhood, to whom he had for some time been most enthusiastically attached. At the close of the former year he had published a volume of exquisite Odes; to which he prefixed the following characteristic preface:

“The public has been so much ac-

customed of late to didactic poetry alone, and essays on moral subjects, that any work, where the imagination is much indulged, will perhaps not be relished or regarded. The author therefore of these pieces is in some pain, lest certain austere critics should think them too fanciful and descriptive. But as he is convinced that the fashion of moralizing in verse has been carried too far, and as he looks upon invention and imagination to be the chief faculties of a poet, so he will be happy if the following Odes may be looked upon as an attempt to bring back poetry into its right channel.”

“In the year 1751, he was called from the indulgence of connubial happiness, and the luxury of literary retirement, to attend his patron to the south of France; for which invitation the duke had two motives, the society of a man of learning and taste, and the accommodation of a protestant clergyman, who, immediately on the death of his duchess, then in a confirmed dropsy, could marry him to the lady with whom he lived, and who was universally known and distinguished by the name of Polly Peachum.

“The opportunity of visiting the continent, and the introduction to every species of acquirement and information brought within his reach by the rank and connections of his patron, must have offered to a mind like Dr. Warton’s the most refined and pleasurable sensations; but the brightness of the prospect was clouded by circumstances attendant on the expedition, not the most eligible in a professional view, but which are unnecessary to point out to my reader, and by a heart-wounding separation from the wife of

of his unabating tenderness, an infant family, and a mother to whom he was most piously attached, and who was then in the College of Clergymen's Widows at Winchester, bending under the weight of age and infirmities. Strong was the conflict of opposing principles. The laudable wish however of improving the condition of those who by every tie divine and human were the objects of his most anxious love, at length prevailed; and with a view to rescue them, at no very distant period, from the struggles and deprivations of a straitened income, he acceded to the plan. He embarked at Greenwich on the 26th of April, in one of the king's yachts; and, after a tedious and stormy passage, landed at Calais on the 8th of May. To those who have enjoyed the rich and varied treasures of his conversation, who have been dazzled by the brilliancy of his wit, and instructed by the acuteness of his observations, I need not suggest how truly enviable was the journey which his fellow-travellers accomplished through the French provinces to Montauban; at which place it was their intention to take up their residence. As the duke travelled with his own horses, and consequently by short and easy stages, the doctor had sufficient leisure to visit churches, convents, and every other public building worthy the notice of an inquisitive traveller. But as in those days the knowledge of modern languages seldom or ever formed a part of scholastic education or collegiate reading, his total ignorance of the French tongue was pregnant with continual obstacles; to overcome which he had recourse to Latin; yet, alas! the bald, unclassical, and monkish style

in which a few, and very few Irish friars in the convents were enabled to converse, imparted but at best disjointed information, and furnished a very broken and imperfect correspondence. In a letter written early in August from La Mole near Montauban to his brother, is the following paragraph: 'I am very sorry to tell you I greatly fear Mr. Powlett and I shall never visit Italy, which will be a sad mortification.' This disappointment, arising from some private causes, united to his impatience of being restored to his family, induced him to wave every consideration of intellectual improvement and additional preferment, and to quit his situation. During the month of September he set out for Bourdeaux in a courier's cart, such as is used for the conveyance of the mail; but found the machine so rough and inconvenient, that within five or six leagues he was obliged to quit it, and submit to a day's rest ere he proceeded. Not impeded in resolution by this obstacle, he joined himself to some carriers who were travelling in Brittany, and with them reached St. Malo's; from whence he obtained a passage by Guernsey to Southampton. Thus ended his tour; and the month subsequent to his arrival presented one of the great objects for which it was undertaken. The duchess of Bolton died. Upon this event he immediately wrote to the duke, and asked his permission to return to him. Mr. Devisme, however, chaplain to the embassy at Turin, had been sent for to perform the marriage ceremony, and was already on his route to Aix in Provence, to which place the parties had removed.

“He now dedicated his whole attention to the accomplishment of a work he had for some time been engaged in, and to the success of which he fondly looked forward, not only with a view of compensating his recent disappointment, but with the hope also of deservedly claiming from the public an advantageous and permanent share of patronage and protection. He edited Virgil in Latin and English, the *Æneid* translated by Pitt, the *Eclogues* and *Georgics*, with notes on the whole by himself. Into this publication he introduced Warburton’s *Dissertation on the Sixth Æneid*, a *Commentary on the Character of Iapis* by Atterbury, and on the *Shield of Æneas* by Whitehead; to which he added, as composed by himself, three *Essays on pastoral, didactic, and epic poetry*.

“Unqualified as might have been the praises bestowed on his detached pieces, and gratifying as probably were the fleeting laurels reaped by the casual ebullitions of fancy, or the momentary effusions of poetical genius; yet nothing he had hitherto given to the world was calculated to establish a lasting reputation, or hand down his name as a critic and scholar to posterity. True it is, that the author of *The Enthusiast*, and *Ode to Fancy*, would ever have been dear to those who were capable of relishing the unaffected charms and genuine fire of a vivid and highly inspired imagination; but within the bosoms of such, and such only, would the remembrance have probably existed; whilst the editor of *Virgil*, from the very nature of the undertaking, and the general utility arising from the varied and combined merits of the work, had solid pretensions to an exalted and perma-

nent rank in the republic of letters, and claimed from scholars of every age and description the memorial of grateful admiration. In proportion to the value of success, will ever be, in great and feeling minds, the dread of failure; and to such an union of poetry and criticism, to so ample a confession of his creed in point of both taste and scholarship, our author naturally deemed it requisite to apply the whole vigour of his genius, and vigilantly to exercise all his accuracy of judgment: hence was it that he anxiously wrote from Montauban lest Dodsley should set a sheet to the press (though the far greater part was finished, and already in his hands) ere he returned from the Continent. Of the ‘*limæ labor et mora*’ it is evident he knew the full value.

“His reason for preferring the translation of Pitt to that of Dryden, he thus openly in his dedication declares to his friend sir George Lyttleton: ‘Give me leave to intrude on your patience a moment longer, to speak of Mr. Pitt’s version of the *Æneid*. I am very well informed, that Mr. Pope, notwithstanding his just affection and even veneration for Mr. Dryden, regarded Mr. Pitt’s as an excellent translation. It is lucky for me, that some of Mr. Dryden’s errors, in this part of the work, have been lately pointed out by a very candid writer, and one who entertains the highest opinion of his genius, to whom, says he, our English poetry is more indebted for its improvements than any other writer, Mr. Pope only excepted. What I hint at is one of the chapters on allegory in Mr. Spence’s *Polymetis*; where that gentleman hath endeavoured to shew, how
very

very little our poets have understood the allegories of the ancients, even in their translations of them; and has chosen to instance Mr. Dryden's translation of Virgil's *Æneid*, as he thought him one of our most celebrated poets. The mistakes are very numerous, and some of them unaccountably gross: upon this I was desirous to examine Mr. Pitt's translation of the same passages, and was surprised to find, that in near fifty instances which Mr. Spence has given of Mr. Dryden's mistakes of that kind, Mr. Pitt had not fallen into above three or four.' After mentioning the specimens, and commenting on them with candid and judicious accuracy, he adds, 'In fine, if my partiality for Mr. Pitt does not mislead me, I should think he has executed his work with great spirit; that he has a fine flow of harmonious versification; and has rendered his author's sense with faithfulness and perspicuity; but my testimony can be of little consequence in this case, and there is no reason to doubt but that he will stand by his own intrinsic merit, which the public hath already sufficiently approved.' The editor of the *Lives of the Poets* does not however give Mr. Pitt credit for the great spirit discovered by Dr. Warton. He asserts that, if the versions were compared, the result would be, that Dryden leads the reader forward by his general vigour and sprightliness, and Pitt often stops him, to contemplate the excellence of a single couplet; that Dryden's faults are forgotten in the hurry of delight, and that Pitt's beauties are neglected in the languor of a cold and listless perusal; that Pitt pleases the critics, and Dryden the people; that Pitt is quoted, and Dryden read."——

"During this year, a most flattering invitation was held out to Dr. Warton to become a party in *The Adventurer*; a periodical paper then in the full zenith of publication. The highly respectable channel through which this request was made, rendered refusal impossible; nor were the motives of a nature less gratifying. He was told that the proprietors of the paper, having arranged their essays on imagination and descriptions of life, were particularly desirous to assign the province of criticism and literature to the commentator on Virgil. Neither the great character who made the request, or the public, who enjoyed the benefit of it, were disappointed. Dr. Warton furnished twenty-four papers; amongst which are two most noble essays on the superior grandeur and sublimity of the sacred over the profane writers; a truly humorous paper on the poverty of poets; two inimitable criticisms on the *Tempest*, and three on the *Lear* of Shakspeare; two panegyrics on the *Odyssey*; some very shrewd and accurate observations on Milton's *Paradise Lost*; two very excellent treatises indicative of those branches of literature in which the ancients excelled, or were surpassed by the moderns; and an oriental tale entitled *Bozaldab*, not exceeded in purity of sentiment or strength of expression by the *Rambler*, or any periodical work.

"Still captivated by that instinctive love of literature incorporated as it were in his very nature, it was the wish of Dr. Warton to crown this year with an additional exertion of talent and criticism. He planned to unite in a volume, and publish, "Select Epistles of Angelus Politianus, Desiderius Erasmus, Hugo Grotius, and others,

others, with notes," on a scale sufficiently extensive to embrace an history of the revival of learning. This design, after some correspondence with his brother, who was to participate in the undertaking, was unfortunately laid aside.

"In the course of the next year Dr. Warton was instituted to the living of Tunworth, on the presentation of the Jervoise family; and during the summer months paid a visit to Mr. Spence, the author of *Polymetis*, and of the elegant and classical essay on Pope's *Odyssey*; under whose roof was laid the foundation of those critical disquisitions which proved his competency of deciding on the merits of modern, as his *Virgil* had before done on those of ancient poetry.

"In the year 1755 he was, on the resignation of the Rev. Samuel Speed, elected second master of Winchester school, with the management and advantages of a boarding-house. It was now his lot to assume in some measure a new character, and turn his ideas principally to a very useful but dry channel of literature. He had engaged in a profession to the highest degree productive of pride and mortification; and capable of bestowing on a feeling mind the utmost excess of pleasure and of pain; a profession, the anxious responsibility of which nothing but the consciousness of duty willingly discharged can alleviate; and whose labour is softened only by the success of its exertions, and the almost parental attachments inseparable from an intercourse with youth. Gifted with a disposition to embrace heartily every pursuit, it would have been wonderful had he failed in one of so interesting a tendency. He entered on his honourable em-

ployment with all the energy a mind like his naturally conceived; but his zeal was tempered with judgment, and the eagerness of his expectations chastened by salutary patience. Ardent in provoking emulation, and rewarding excellence, he was at the same time aware that the standard of approved merit must not be placed too high, or the laudable industry which gradually invigorates mediocrity of talent, be crushed by disproportionate demands. He knew that the human mind developed itself progressively, but not always in the same consistent degrees, or at periods uniformly similar. He conjectured therefore that the most probable method of ensuring some valuable improvement to the generality of boys, was not to exact what the generality are capable of performing. As a remedy for inaccurate construction, arising either from apparent idleness or inability, he highly approved, and sedulously imposed, translation. Modesty, timidity, or many other constitutional impediments, may prevent a boy from displaying before his master, and in the front of his class, those talents, of which privacy, and a relief from these embarrassments, will often give proof. If Addison, in the prime of life and possession of the richest mental endowments, could confess, when speaking of his deficiency in conversation, that with respect to intellectual wealth "he could draw a bill for a thousand pounds, though he had not a guinea in his pocket," it may be supposed that boys not really destitute of talent, or incapable of becoming scholars, are sometimes so oppressed by shyness or fear, as not to do themselves justice in the common routine of public instruction, and to require a varied

a varied method of ascertaining their sufficiency of information and intellect. This important end Dr. Warton thought happily answered by translation; nor did he deem lightly of its value as a general system. A habit of composition he imagined to be gradually acquired by it; and the style and sentiments of an author deeply engraven on the memory of the scholar. These sentiments were confirmed by that most infallible test, experience; as he declared (within a few years of his death) that the best scholars he had sent into the world were those whom, whilst second master, he had thus habituated to translation, and given a capacity of comparing and associating the idiom of the dead languages with their own.

“Sir George Lyttleton was, in the course of the year 1756, advanced to a peerage; and one of his first acts was to confer a scarf on Dr. Warton. To him were submitted his lordship’s proposed alterations of Thomson, and under his critical eye was revised a part of the *Life of Henry II.* The anxious and fatiguing avocations of a schoolmaster did not however put a stop to his own literary career. In the spring of this year he published the first volume of his *Essay on the Genius and Writings of Pope*, dedicated to one of Wykeham’s most illustrious sons, ‘the Author of the *Night Thoughts.*’ As the doctrine contained in this treatise was deemed rather novel, and the rank assigned to Pope, in the class of poets, not such as pleased the warm admirers of that writer, the publication naturally gave rise to a variety of opinion: a review under the professed direction of a sound critic and scholar, after particularizing his commen-

taries on the different poems, concludes with the following general observation: ‘Upon the whole, this *Essay on the Genius and Writings of Pope* is a most entertaining and useful miscellany of literary knowledge and candid criticism; containing censure without acrimony, and praise without flattery; and abounding with incidents little known relating to celebrated writers, and instructive remarks upon their characters and works.’—

“The spring of 1766 gave the subject of these memoirs, on the resignation of Dr. Burton, the literary superintendence of that school to the fame and welfare of which, during the last eleven years, he had sensibly contributed. On the 12th of May he was appointed head master, and was succeeded in the ushership by the rev. Thomas Collins, who had been a fellow of New College, and to whose direction the free-school, under the patronage of that society, had been intrusted.

“The fame of the school under such auspices could not be otherwise than great. Whilst a far larger number of commoners than had been known at any former period filled the boarding-houses at Winchester, the University honours, particularly those procured by poetical efforts, were successively borne away by the members of New College. That pure and manly taste which distinguished the master, could not fail to influence, in a considerable degree, the productions of the scholars. But, alas! amidst this prospect of worldly prosperity, whilst the Doctor fondly indulged that happiness which ever awaits the gratification of laudable ambition, an event occurred, which was deemed the complete wreck of his domestic felicity. The wife
whom

whom he still adored with unabating love, whose prudent and useful exertions contributed to the affluence, whilst her unaffected good sense and endearing tenderness secured the bliss and comfort of his life, fell a victim to a rapid and unconquerable disease, and left him the wretched widowed parent of six children.

“About this time he became a member of the Literary Club; with many of whom individually he had long been intimate; and was concerned in the famous round robin sent to Johnson, on his inscription for Goldsmith’s monument. Mr. Boswell, with whom Dr. Johnson is infallible, and who appears to look on his idolized friend with the same eyes a fond mother views her spoiled child, remarks that Mr. Langton, who was one of the company at sir Joshua’s, *like a sturdy scholar*, resolutely refused to sign it. Does he by this expression intend to attach want of scholarship to such men as Warton, Burke, Gibbon, Barnard, Colman, Reynolds, and others who did sign it?—I should hope not. And with respect to Johnson’s allusion to an epitaph on Erasmus in Dutch, it is by no means analogous; Goldsmith’s works are entirely in his native tongue; he was never celebrated as a proficient in the dead languages; nor has he sent into the world any composition, translation, or criticism connected with them. The idea therefore was to commemorate him in English, as a writer eminently distinguished in that language, and in that only. It will scarcely, I think, be allowed, that the same plea exists for an epitaph in Dutch on Erasmus. If the walls of Westminster Abbey are disgraced by English inscriptions, no less writers than Milton

and Pope have contributed to their degradation.

“The duties of a schoolmaster, and the necessity of an intelligent female to superintend a family composed of such various and complicated parts, soon convinced Dr. Warton how incumbent on him it was to sooth his anguish by the admission of new comforts, and curb the violence of unavailing and destructive regret. He indeed paid the truest compliment to the memory of his departed wife, by taking the steps he then thought most conducive to the welfare of her family, and by forming those connexions, from which they would probably derive both improvement and felicity. In December 1773 he married miss Nicholas, daughter of Robert Nicholas, esq. and a descendant of Dr. N. formerly warden of the college. I have the authority of his excellent sister, Mrs. Jane Warton, for asserting that he was peculiarly fortunate in his connexions; both wives being most amiable and good women.”—

“It is no less reprehensible than remarkable, that the talents of the poet and critic, and the successful exertions of the instructor, had as yet received neither encouragement or remuneration. Nor had one man of power and patronage, though the sons of many were intrusted to his care, deemed it incumbent on him to confer either affluence or dignity on their master. It remained for a prelate most high in theological and classical reputation, for one who knew the value of literary acquirements, and was in his own person a distinguished example of the public benefit to which they may be converted, to do honour to himself and his situation by the preferment of Dr. Warton. In the year 1782, the eminently

nently learned and pious Dr. Lowth, then bishop of London, bestowed on him a prebend of St. Paul's, and within the year added the living of Chorley in Hertfordshire, which, after some arrangements, the Doctor exchanged for Wickham.

"This year gave also to the world the long expected sequel of the *Essay on Pope*; a great part of which volume had for some time been printed, and the completion of which was retarded from motives of a most delicate and laudable nature."—

"During the spring of 1786, Dr. Warton was visited by a most heavy domestic affliction. His second son, a man of high talents and superior information, but who had long laboured under a lingering and obstinate disease, died whilst sitting in his chair after dinner, and was found in that situation by his father on his return from college prayers. This stroke the Doctor severely felt; and within four years, ere the painful remembrance had vanished from his mind, and his spirits had regained their former tone, he lost that brother to whom from his childhood he had been invariably attached, and for whose genius and fame he had ever felt the most pure and liberal admiration. It is indeed but justice to the memory of both to declare that they never for a moment knew the narrow passions of jealousy and envy; on the contrary, their most anxious efforts were used to distinguish each other, and it was their truest happiness to find those efforts successful. To their several publications the most active and ready assistance had been mutually afforded. Mr. Warton was sedulously employed in the edition of *Virgil*, and his brother in return fur-

nished many valuable materials for the *History of English Poetry*: no means were at any time left untried by either party to bring forward and place in a prominent view the merit of the other. Severe therefore to the survivor must have been the separation. It was indeed the loss of a second self.

"Through the interest of lord Shannon, the prebend of Winchester cathedral, vacated in 1788 by the then bishop of Oxford's translation to Hereford, was bestowed by the premier on Dr. Warton. Related to Mrs. Warton, and firmly attached to the Doctor, not only on account of his literary reputation and amiable qualifications, but for the care and improvement experienced by lord Boyle, whilst a commoner at the school, the noble earl did honour to both his heart and head, by procuring for such a man that preferment to which his services as a public character had for a long period entitled him; and this meritorious exertion was at no great distance of time followed up by another dignified character, who had himself experienced the advantages of Dr. Warton's tuition, and of whose unabating regard and reverence for his master this was only one of many liberal proofs. Induced by such an application, the bishop of Winchester conferred on him the rectory of Easton, and permitted him within the year to exchange it for Upham.

"It will perhaps be remarked, that the two livings above mentioned, with the prebends of Winchester and St. Paul's, comprised, with respect to both rank and affluence, a dignified and sufficient preferment: the age however of Dr. Warton when these events took place must necessarily be considered.

dered. Sixty summers had passed over his head ere the first benefice (if we except the small living of Wynslade) came into his possession; and he had approached far nearer to seventy years of age ere he enjoyed the remainder. Late indeed then must we acknowledge his reward to have been for a life so useful and so ornamental to society.

“The fatigues arising from the management and instruction of a public school, demanded those exertions to which the Doctor’s advanced time of life now became incompetent. After many irresolute fluctuations of opinion, after strong combats between propriety and inclination, the spring of 1793 witnessed the annunciation of his departure from the mastership at the ensuing election; in consequence of which notice, on July the 23d, he retired to his rectory of Wickham, carrying with him the love, admiration, and esteem, of the whole Wykehamical Society.

“That ardent mind which had so eminently distinguished the exercise of his public duties, did not desert him in the hours of leisure and retirement; for inactivity was foreign to his nature. His parsonage, his farm, his garden, were cultivated and adorned with the eagerness and taste of undiminished youth; whilst the beauties of the surrounding forest scenery, and the interesting grandeur of the neighbouring shore, were enjoyed by him with an enthusiasm innate in his very being. His lively sallies of playful wit, his rich store of literary anecdote, and the polished and habitual ease with which he imperceptibly entered into the various ideas and pursuits of men in different situations, and endowed with educations totally opposite, rendered him an acquaintance both

profitable and amusing; whilst his unaffected piety and unbounded charity stamped him a pastor adored by his parishioners. Difficult indeed would it be to decide, whether he shone in a degree less in this social character than in the closet of criticism or the chair of instruction.

“The habits of literary occupation were not to be shaken off, or the love of critical discussion extinguished. In the course of the year 1797 he edited, in nine volumes octavo, prefaced by the following advertisement, the works of that poet on whose genius and writings he had before so successfully commented: ‘The public is here presented with a complete edition of the Works of Pope, both in verse and prose; accompanied with various notes and illustrations. The reason for undertaking it, was the universal complaint that Dr. Warburton had disfigured and disgraced his edition with many forced and far-sought interpretations, totally unsupported by the passages which they were brought to elucidate. If this was only my single opinion, nothing could have induced me to have delivered it with so much freedom; nor to have undertaken this work after it had passed through the hands of Dr. Warburton. Many, however, of his notes, that do not fall under this description, are here adopted. To this edition are now added, several poems undoubtedly of our author’s hand; and in prose, many letters to different correspondents, which, from the circumstances of literary history which they contain, it was thought might be entertaining; together with his Thoughts on various Subjects; his Account of the Madness of Dennis; the Poisoning of Edmund Curl; the Essay on the Origin

gin of Sciences; the Key to the Rape of the Lock; and that piece of inimitable humour, the Fourteenth Chapter of Scriblerus, on the Double Mistress; all of which were inserted in his own edition in quarto, 1741. And to these is added, also, one of the best of his compositions, his Postscript to the Odyssey.

‘If I have sometimes ventured, in the following remarks, to point out any seeming blemishes and imperfections in the works of this excellent poet, I beg it may be imputed, not to the ‘dull, malignant delight’ of seeking to find out trivial faults, but merely to guard the reader from being misled, by the example of a writer, in general, so uniformly elegant and correct.’

“The peculiar circumstances which, owing to the Doctor’s prior publication, were inseparable from this edition, rendered plagiarism (if the stealing from himself merits the title) inevitable. Many of the notes were unavoidably transferred from the Essay, though be it recollected a considerable portion of new matter was introduced. In addition to the criticisms of the reviews, which generally on literary works decide with fairness and impartiality, and of whose judgment few who attack neither religion or morality, or insidiously dabble in political quackeries, have cause to complain; an harsh and unjustifiable attack was made on my valuable and learned friend, in a satire to which the attention of the public had been peculiarly awakened. That objections might fairly be made to the edition of Pope, it is far from my purpose to deny; but when we read the unfeeling and inapplicable reproach contained in the following lines,

‘Better to disappoint the public hope,
Like Warton, driv’ling on the page of
Pope—

Whilst o’er the ground that Warburton
once trod

The Winton pedant shakes his little rod’—

“we can only say, that it commences with an unmanly insult on old age, and closes with a total ignorance of character. All who have been acquainted with Dr. Warton will, I believe, acknowledge that pedantry and Warton knew not each other. This vague and indiscriminate censure surely falls to the ground by its own unmeaning and general abuse, and is I suppose properly suited to the peg on which the notes were to hang; as we find in them a more distinct, and I must confess in some degree a better grounded attack. Indeed, had this unknown and sagacious critic, to whom, when we consider the peculiarity of the times in which he wrote, every friend of religion and good government must feel himself in no small measure obliged, been more temperate and rational in his objections, he would perhaps to a certain point have affected the fame of Dr. Warton: but the uncharitable and unchristianlike severity in which his philippic is couched, has rendered many unwilling even to allow faults otherwise too clear.”—

“Although Dr. Warton certainly felt the misrepresentations of his motives and character, and the contemptuous and indelicate manner in which he had been treated, yet he did not so totally shrink from the grey-goose plume nodding on the head of this inexorable censor, as to hang up his armour unfit for future enterprise, and give up the remainder of his days to indolence and ease.

“He entered on an edition of Dryden, an author for whose exalted
genius

genius and strong powers of mind he felt the most decisive admiration, and some of whose works he had already rescued from the mistaken severity of prejudice and error. Between this period and the close of 1799, he completely finished two volumes of this poet with notes; and in opposition to the encroachments of a too resistless malady, was proceeding in his classical and interesting pursuit, when nature

completely sunk under disease, and the very early part of the ensuing spring put an end to a life, the greater part of which had been dedicated to the most useful and honourable employments, and no period of which had been such as to call a blush into the cheek of those who from consanguinity or friendship looked back with regret on its termination."

The LIFE of Mrs. LUCY HUTCHINSON.—Written by Herself.—
A Fragment.

[From MEMOIRS of the LIFE of COLONEL HUTCHINSON.]

"THE Almighty Author of all beings*, in his various providences, whereby he conducts the lives of men from the cradle to the tomb, exercises no lesse wisdom and goodnesse then he manifests power and greatnesse in their creation, but such is the stupidity of blind mortalls that instead of employing their studies in these admirable bookes of providence, wherein God dayly exhibitts to us glorious characters of his love, kindnesse, wisdom, and iustice, they ungratefully regard them not, and call the most wonderfull operations of the greate God the common accidents of humane life, specially if they be such as are

usuall, and exercised towards them in ages wherein they are not very capable of observation, and whereon they seldome employ any reflexion; for in things greate and extraordinary some perhaps will take notice of God's working, who either forgett or believe not that he takes as well a care and account of their smallest concernments, even the haire of their heads.

"Finding myselfe in some kind guilty of this generall neglect, I thought it might be a meanes to stirre up my thankfulness for things past, and to encourage my faith for the future, if I recollected, as much as I have heard or can re-

* That noble turn of thought which led Mrs. Hutchinson to open her work with thanks to her Maker, instead of apologies to the readers, besides the claim it has to their respect instead of their indulgence, will probably, by its originality, recommend itself, and prevent the distaste which the air of religion, it wears, might give to many, in times when it is so little in fashion. It should be borne in mind that the usage of the times in which it was written was so very different from the present, that those who wish to read with pleasure the works then written, will do well to set their taste according to that standard.

Through the whole of both these works moral and religious reflections will be seen to abound, but so as neither to confuse nor fetter, but rather elevate the mind.

member, of the passages of my youth, and the generall and particular providences exercis'd to me, both in the entrance and progresse of my life. Herein I meete with so many speciall indulgences as require a distinct consideration, they being all of them to be regarded as talents intrusted to my emprovement for God's glory. The parents by whom I receiv'd my life, the places where I began and continued it, the time when I was brought forth to be a wittnesse of God's wonderfull workings in the earth, the rank that was given me in my generation, and the advantages I receiv'd in my person, each of them carries along with it many mercies which are above my utterance, and as they give me infinite cause of glorifying God's goodnesse, so I cannot reflect on them without deepe humiliation for the small emprovement I have made of so rich a stock; which that I may yet by God's grace better employ, I shall recall and seriously ponder: and first, as farre as I have since learnt, sett downe the condition of things in the place of my nativity at that time when I was sent into the world. It was on the 29th day of January, in the yeare of our Lord 1619, that in the Tower of London, the principall citie of the English Isle; I was about 4 of the clock in the morning brought forth to behold the ensuing light. My father was Sr. Allen Apsley, leiftenant of the Tower of London; my mother, his third wife, was Lucy, the youngest daughter of Sr. John St. John, of Lidiard Tregoz, in Wilt-

shire, by his second wife. My father had then living a sonne and a daughter by his former wives, and by my mother three sonns, I being her eldest daughter. The land was then att peace, (it being towards the latter end of the reigne of king James) if that quietnesse may be call'd a peace, which was rather like the calme and smooth surface of the sea, whose darke womb is already impregnated of a horrid tempest.

"Whoever considers England *, will find itt no small favour of God to have bene made one of its natives, both upon spirituall and outward accounts. The happinesse of the soyle and ayre contribute all things that are necessary to the use or delight of man's life. The celebrated glory of this isle's inhabitants, ever since they receiv'd a mention in history, conferrs some honor upon every one of her children, and with it an obligation to continue in that magnanimitie and virtue, which hath fam'd this island, and rays'd her head in glory, higher then the greate kingdomes of the neighbouring continent. Brittain hath bene as a garden enclosed, wherein all things that man can wish, to make a pleasant life, are planted and grow in her owne soyle, and whatsoever forreigne countries yield to encrease admiration and delight, are brought in by her fleetes. The people, by the plenty of their country, not being forc'd to toyle for bread, have ever addicted themselves to more generous employments, and bene reckoned, allmost in all ages, as valliant war-

* If Mrs. Hutchinson in descanting upon the advantages of her native country, and giving almost an epitome of its history, should seem to digress a little too much, it is hoped the reader will find beauty and singularity in her sketch sufficient to excuse it.

riours as any part of the world sent forth: insomuch that the greatest Roman capitaines thought it not unworthy of their expeditions, and tooke greate glory in triumphs for unperfect conquests. Lucan upbraids Julius Cæsar for returning hence with a repulse, and 'twas 200 yeares before the land could be reduc'd into a Roman province, which att length was done, and such of the nation, then call'd Picts, as scorn'd servitude, were driven into the barren country of Scotland, where they have ever since remain'd a perpetuall trouble to the successive inhabitants of this place. The Brittaines that thought it better to worke for their conquerors in a good land, then to have the freedom to sterve in a cold and barren quarter, were by degrees fetcht away, and wasted in the civill broyles of these Roman lords, till the land; almost depopulated, lay open to the incursions of every borderer, and were forc'd to call a stout warlike people, the Saxons, out of Germany, to their assistance. These willingly came at their call, but were not so easily sent out againe, nor perswaded to lett their hosts inhabite with them, for they drove the Brittaines into the mountaines of Wales, and seated themselves in those pleasant countries which from the new masters receiv'd a new name, and ever since retain'd it, being call'd England; on which the warlike Dane made many attempts, with various successe, but after about 2 or 300 yeares vaine contest, they were for ever driven out, with shame and losse, and the Saxon Heptarchie melted into a monarchie, which continued till the superstitious prince, who was stinied for his ungodly chastitie, left an emptie throne to him that could seize it. He who first set up

his standard in it, could not hold it, but with his life left it againe for the Norman usurper, who partly by violence, partly by falshood; layd here the foundation of his monarchie, in the people's blood; in which it hath swom about 500 yeares, till the flood that bore it was plow'd into such deepe furrows as had almost sunke the proud vessell. Of those Saxons that remain'd subjects to the Norman conqueror, my father's famely descended; of those Normans that came in with him, my mother's was derived; both of them, as all the rest in England, contracting such affinity, by mutuall marriages, that the distinction remain'd but a short space; Normans and Saxons becoming one people, who by their vallour grewe terrible to all the neighbouring princes, and have not only bravely quitted themselves in their owne defence, but have shew'd abroad, how easily they could subdue the world, if they did not preferre the quiett enioyment of their owne part above the conquest of the whole.

“Better lawes and a happier constitution of government no nation ever enioy'd, it being a mixture of monarchy, aristocratie, and democracy, with sufficient fences against the pest of every one of those formes, tyranny, faction, and confusion; yett is it not possible for man to devize such iust and excellent bounds, as will keepe in wild ambition, when prince's flatterers encourage that beast to breake his fence, which it hath often done, with miserable consequences both to the prince and people: but could never in any age so tread downe popular liberty, but that it rose againe with renewed vigor, till at length it trod on those that trampled it before. And in the iust bounds

wherein

wherein our kings were so well hedg'd in, the surrounding princes have with terror sene the reproofe of their usurpations over their free brethren, whom they rule rather as slaves then subiects, and are only serv'd for feare, but not for love; whereas this people have ever bene as affectionate to good as unpliable to bad soveraignes.

“Nor is it only vallour and generosity that renowne this nation; in arts wee have advanc'd equall to our neighbors, and in those that are most excellent, exceeded them. The world hath not yeilded men more famous in navigation, nor ships better built or furnisht. Agriculture is as ingeniously practis'd: the English archery were the terror of Christendome, and their clothes the ornament: but these low things bounded not their greate spiritts, in all ages it hath yeilded men as famous in all kinds of learning, as Greece or Italy can boast of.

“And to compleate the crowne of all their glorie, reflected from the lustre of their ingenuity, vallour, witt, learning, iustice, wealth, and bounty, their pietie and devotion to God, and his worship, hath made them one of the most truly noble nations in the Christian world. God having as it were enclosed a people here, out of the wast common of the world, to serve him with a pure and undefiled worship. Lucius the Brittish king was one of the first monarchs of the earth that receiv'd the faith of Christ into his heart and kingdome: Henrie the eighth, the first prince that broke the antichristian yoke of from his owne and his subiects necks. Here it was that the first Christian emperor receiv'd his crowne: Here began the early dawne of gospell light, by Wickliffe and other faithful wittnesses, whom God rays'd up

after the black and horrid midnight of antichristianisme, and a more plentifull harvest of devout confessors; constant martirs, and holy worshippers of God, hath not growne in any field of the church; throughout all ages, then those whom God hath here glorified his name and gospell by. Yett hath not this wheate bene without its tares, God in comparison with other countries hath made this as a paradise, so, to compleate the parallell, the serpent hath in all times bene busy to sedice, and not unsuccessefull, ever stirring up opposers to the infant truths of Christ.

“No sooner was the faith of Christ embrac'd in this nation, but the neighbouring heathens invaded the innocent Christians, and slaughter'd multitudes of them; and when, by the mercy of God, the conquering Pagans were afterwards converted, and that there were none left to oppose the name of Christ with open hostility; then the subtle serpent putt of his owne horrid appearance, and comes out in a Christian dresse, to persecute Christ in his poore prophetts, that bore wittnesse against the corruption of the times. This intestine quarrell hath bene more successefull to the devill, and more afflictive to the church then all open warres; and, I feare, will never happily be decided, till the Prince of Peace come to conclude the controversie, which att the time of my birth was working up into that tempest, wherein I have shar'd many perills, many feares, and many sorrows, and many more mercies, consolations and preservations, which I shall have occasion to mention in other places.

“From the place of my birth I shall only desire to remember the goodnesse of the Lord who hath

caused my lott to fall in a good ground, who hath fed me in a pleasant pasture where the well-springs of life flow to all that desire to drinke of them. And this is no small favour, if I consider how many poore people perish among the heathen, where they never heare the name of Christ; how many poore Christians spring up in countries enslav'd by Turkish and antichristian tyrants, whose soules and bodies languish under miserable slavery. None knowes what mercy 'tis to live under a good and wholesome law, that have not consider'd the sad condition of being subject to the will of an unlimited man, and surely 'tis too universall a sin in this nation. that the common mercies of God to the whole land, are so slightly regarded and so unconsiderately past over; certainly these are circumstances which much magnifie God's loving-kindnesse and his speciall favor to all that are of English birth, and call for a greater returne of duty from us then from all other people of the world.

"Nor is the place only, but the time of my comming into the world a considerable mercy to me. It was not in the midnight of poperie, nor in the dawne of the gospell's restored day, when light and shades were blended and almost undistinguisht, but when the Sun of truth was exalted in his progresse and hastening towards a meridian glory. It was indeed early in the morning, God being pleased to allow me the priviledge of beholding the admirable growth of gospell light in my dayes: and oh! that my soule may never forgett to blesse and prayse his name for the wonders of power and goodnesse, wisdom and truth, which have bene manifested in this my time.

"The next blessing I have to consider in my nativity is my parents, both of them pious and vertuous in their owne conversation, and careful instructors of my youth, not only by precept but example. Which if I had leizure and abillity, I should have transmitted to my posterity, both to give them the honor due from me in such a grateful memoriall, and to encrease my children's emproovement of the patterns they sett them; but since I shall detract from those I would celebrate, by my imperfect commemorations, I shall content mysele to summe up some few things for my owne use, and let the rest alone, which I either knew not, or have forgotten, or cannot worthily expresse.

"My grandfather by the father's side was a gentleman of a competent estate, about 7 or 800*l.* a yeare, in Sussex. He being descended of a younger house, had his residence att a place called Pulborough; the famely out of which he came was an Apsley of Apsley, a towne where they had bene seated before the conquest, and ever since continued, till of late the last heire male of that eldest house, being the sonne of Sr. Edward Apsley, is dead without issue, and his estate gone with his sister's daughters into other famelies. Particularities concerning my father's kindred or country, I never knew much of, by reason of my youth, at the time of his death, and my education in farre distant places, only in generall I have heard, that my grandfather was a man well reputed and beloved in his country, and that it had bene such a continued custome for my ancestors to take wives att home, that there was not scarce a famely of any note in Sussex, to which they were not by intermarriages

riages neerely related ; but I was myselfe a stranger to them all, except my Lord Goring, who living att court, I have sene with my father, and heard of him, because he was appoynted one of my father's executors, though he declin'd the trouble. My grandfather had seven sonns, of which my father was the youngest : to the eldest he gave his whole estate, and to the rest, according to the custome of those times, slight annuities. The eldest-brother married to a gentlewoman of a good famely, and by her had only one sonne, whose mother dying, my uncle married himselfe againe to one of his own maides, and by her had three more sons, whom, with their mother, my cousin William Apsley, the sonne of the first wife, held in such contempt, that a greate while after, dying without children, he gave his estate of inheritance to my father, and two of my brothers, except about 100*l*. a yeare to the eldest of his halfe brothers, and annuities of 30*l*. a piece to the 3 for their lives. He died before I was borne, but I have heard very honorable mention of him in our famely ; the rest of my father's brothers went into the warres in Ireland and the Low Countries, and there remain'd none of them, nor their issues when I was born, but only three daughters who bestowed themselves meanely, and their generations are worne out except two or three unregarded children. My father att the death of my grandfather being but a youth att schoole had not patience to stay the perfecting of his studies, but putt himselfe into present action, sold his annuitie, bought himselfe good clothes, put some mony in his purse, and came to London ; and by meanes of a relation at

court, got a place in the household of Queene Elizabeth, where he behav'd himselfe so that he won the love of many of the court ; but being young tooke an affection to gaming, and spent most of the mony he had in his purse. About that time the Earle of Essex was setting forth for Cales voyage, and my father, that had a mind to quitt his idle court life, procur'd an employment from the Victuallar of the Navie, to goe allong with that fleete. In which voyage he demean'd himselfe with so much courage and prudence, that after his returne he was honor'd with a very noble and profitable employment in Ireland. There a rich widow that had many children cast her affections upon him, and he married her ; but she not living many yeares with him, and having no children by him, after her death he distributed all her estate among her children, for whom he ever preserv'd a fatherly kindnesse, and some of her grand-children were brought up in his house after I was borne. He, by God's blessing, and his fidellity and industry, growing in estate and honor, receiv'd a knighthood from King James soone after his coming to the crowne, for some eminent service done to him in Ireland, which having only heard in my childhood, I cannot perfectly sett downe. After that growing into a familiarity with Sr. George Carew, made now by the King Earle of Totnesse, a niece of this earls, the daughter of Sr. Peter Carew, who liv'd a young widow in her uncle's house, fell in love with him, which her uncle perceiving, procur'd a marriage betweene them. She had divers children by my father, but only two of them, a sonne and daughter, surviv'd her, who died whilst my

father was absent from her in Ireland. He led all the time of his widdowhood a very disconsolate life, carefull for nothing in the world but to educate and advance the sonne and daughter, the deare pledges she had left him, for whose sake he quitted himselfe of his employments abroad, and procur'd himselfe the office of Victualler of the Navie, a place then both of credit and greate revenue. His friends, considering his solitude, had procur'd him a match of a very rich widdow, who was a lady of as much discretion as wealth; but while he was upon this designe he chanc'd to see my mother, att the house of Sr. William St. John, who had married her elder sister, and though he went on his iourney, yett something in her person and behaviour, he carried allong with him, which would not lett him accomplish it, but brought him back to my mother. She was of a noble famely, being the youngest daughter of Sr. John St. John, of Lidiair Tregoz, in the county of Wiltz; her father and mother died when she was not above five yeares of age, and yet at her nurses, from whence she was carried to be brought up in the house of the Lord Grandison, her father's younger brother, an honorable and excellent person, but married to a lady so iealous of him, and so illnated in her iealous fitts, to any thing that was related to him, that her cruelties to my mother exceeded the stories of stepmothers: the rest of my aunts, my mother's sisters, were disperst to severall places, where they grew up till my uncle Sr. John St. John being married to the daughter of Sr. Thomas Laten, they were all againe brought home to their brother's house. There were not in those days so

many beautifull women found in any famely as these, but my mother was by the most iudgements preferr'd before all her elder sisters, who, something envious att it, us'd her unkindly, yett all the suiters that came to them, still turned their addresses to her, which she in her youthful innocency neglected, till one of greater name, estate, and reputation then the rest, hapned to fall deeply in love with her, and to manage it so discretely, that my mother could not but entertaine him, and my uncle's wife, who had a mother's kindnesse for her, perswaded her to remoove herselfe from her sisters envie, by going along with her to Isle of Jernsey, where her father was governor; which she did, and there went into the towne, and boarded in a French minister's house, to learne the language, that minister having bene, by the persecution in France, driven to seeke his shelter there. Contracting a deare friendship with this holy man and his wife, she was instructed in their Geneva discipline, which she liked so much better then our more superstitious service, that she could have bene contented to have liv'd there, had not a powerfull passion in her heart drawn her back. But at her returne she met with many afflictions, the gentleman who had professt so much love to her, in her absence had bene, by most vile practises and treacheries, drawne out of his sences, and into the marriage of a person, whom when he recover'd his reason he hated: but that serv'd only to augment his misfortune, and the circumstances of that story not being necessary to be here inserted, I shall only adde that my mother liv'd in my uncle's house, secretly discontented at this accident, but was comforted by the kindnesse

kindnesse of my uncle's wife, who had contracted such an intimate friendship with her, that they seemed to have but one soule. And in this kindnesse she had some time a great sollace, till some mallicious persons had wrought some iealousies which were very groundlesse in my uncle, concerning his wife, but his nature being inclinable to that passion, which was fomented in him by subtile wicked persons, and my mother endeavouring to vindicate iniur'd innocence, she was herselfe not well treated by my uncle, whereupon she left his house, with a resolution to withdraw herselfe into the island, where the good minister was, and there to weare out her life in the service of God. While she was deliberating, and had fixt upon it in her owne thoughts, resolving to impart it to none, she was with Sr. William St. John, who had married my aunt, when my father accidentally came in there, and fell so heartily in love with her, that he perswaded her to marry him, which she did, and her melancholly made her conforme chearfully to that gravity of habitt and conversation, which was becoming the wife of such a person; who was then 48 yeares of age, and she not above 16. The 1st yeare of their marriage was crown'd with a sonne, call'd after my father's name, and borne at East Smithfield, in that house of the king's, which belong'd to my father's employment in the navie: the next yeare they removed to the Tower of London, whereof my father was made lieftenant, and there had 2 sonns more before me and 4 daughters, and two sonnes after: of all which only three sons and two daughters surviv'd him att the time of his death, which was in the sixty-third yeare of his age,

after he had three yeares before languisht of a consumption that succeeded a feaver which he gott in the unfortunate voyage to the Isle of Rhee.

"He died in the month of May 1630, sadly bewail'd by not only all his dependants and relations, but by all that were acquainted with him, for he never conversed with any to whom he was not at some time or in some way beneficiall; and his nature was so delighted in doing good, that it wan him the love of all men, even his enemies, whose envie and mallice it was his custome to overcome with obligations. He had greate naturall parts, but was too active in his youth to stay the heightning of them by study of dead writings, but in the living bookes of men's conversations he soone became so skillfull that he was never mistaken but where his owne good would not lett him give credit to the evill he discern'd in others. He was a most indulgent husband, and no lesse kind to his children; a most noble master, who thought it not enough to maintaine his servants honorably while they were with him, but for all that deserv'd it, provided offices or settlements as for children. He was a father to all his prisoners, sweetning with such compassionate kindnesse their restraint, that the affliction of a prison was not felt in his dayes. He had a singular kindnesse for all persons that were eminent either in learning or armes, and when through the ingratitude and vice of that age many of the wives and children of queene Elizabeth's glorious captaines were reduc'd to poverty, his purse was their common treasury, and they knew not the inconvenience of decay'd fortunes till he was dead: many of those

valliant seamen he maintain'd in prison, many he redeem'd out of prison and cherisht with an extraordinary bounty. If among his excellencies one outshin'd the rest, it was the generous liberallity of his mind, wherein goodnesse and greatnesse were so equally distributed that they mutually embellisht each other. Pride and coveteousnesse had not the least place in his brest. As he was in love with true honor, so he contemn'd vaine titles, and though in his youth he accepted an addition to his birth, in his ripper yeares he refus'd a barondry, which the king offer'd him. He was severe in the regulating of his famely, especially would not endure the least immodest behaviour or dresse in any woman under his roofe. There was nothing he hated more then an insignificant gallant, that could only make his leggs and prune himselfe, and court a lady, but had not braines to employ himselfe in things more suteable to man's nobler sex. Fidelity in his trust, love and loyalty to his prince, were not the least of his vertues, but those wherein he was not excell'd by any of his owne or succeeding times. The large estate he reapt by his happie industry*, he did many times over as freely resigne againe to the king's service, till he left the greatest part of itt at his death in the king's hands. All his vertues wanted not the crowne of all vertue, piety and true devotion to God. As his life was

a continued exercise of faith and charity, it concluded with prayers and blessings, which were the only consolations his desolate famely could receive in his death. Never did any two better agree in magnanimity and bounty then he and my mother, who seem'd to be acted by the same soule, so little did she grutch any of his liberallities to strangers, or he contradict any of her kindnesse to all her relations; her house being a common home to all of them, and a nursery to their children. He gave her a noble allowance of 300*l.* a yeare for her owne private expence, and had given her all her owne portion to dispose of how she pleas'd, as soone as she was married; which she suffer'd to encrease in her friend's hands; and what my father allow'd her she spent not in vanities, although she had what was rich and requisite upon occasions, but she lay'd most of it out in pious and charitable uses. Sr. Walter Rawleigh and Mr. Ruthin being prisoners in the Tower, and addicting themselves to chimistrie, she suffer'd them to make their rare experiments at her cost, partly to comfort and divert the poore prisoners, and partly to gaine the knowledge of their experiments, and the medicines to helpe such poore people as were not able to seeke to phisitians. By these means she acquir'd a greate deale of skill, which was very profitable to many all her life†. She was not only to these,

* Mrs. Hutchinson, though a republican, does not fail justly to appreciate loyalty. The noble family of Bathurst, in which that of Apsley is merged by repeated marriages, will with good title claim this as their appropriate virtue of inheritance.

† This anecdote of Sir Walter Rawleigh will no doubt attract the notice of the observant reader: it merits to be born in mind, as it will account for a passage in the memoirs, where Mrs. Hutchinson is represented as acting the part of a surgeon in the

these, but to all the other prisoners that came into the Tower, as a mother. All the time she dwelt in the Tower, if any were sick she made them broths and restoratives with her owne hands, visited and tooke care of them, and provided them all necessaries; if any were afflicted she comforted them, so that they felt not the inconvenience of a prison who were in that place. She was not lesse bountifull to many poore widdowes and orphans, whom officers of higher and lower rank had left behind them as objects of charity. Her owne house was fill'd with distressed families of her relations, whom she supplied and maintain'd in a noble way. The care of the worship and service of God, both in her soule and her house, and the education of her children, was her principall care. She was a constant frequenter of weekeday lectures, and a greate lover and encourager of good ministers, and most dilligent in her private reading and devotions.

“When my father was sick she was not satisfied with the attendance of all that were about him, but made herselfe his nurse, and cooke, and phisitian, and through the blessing of God and her indefatigable labours and watching, preserv'd him a greate while longer then the phisitians thought it possible for his nature to hold out. At length when the Lord tooke him to rest she shew'd as much

humility and patience, under that greate change, as moderation and bounty in her more plentifull and prosperous condition, and died in my house at Owthorpe, in the county of Nottingham, in the yeare 1659. The privelledge of being borne of and educated by such excellent parents, I have often revolv'd with greate thankfullnesse for the mercy, and humilliation that I did^{not} no more emprove it. After my mother had had 3 sons she was very desireous of a daughter, and when the weomen at my birth told her I was one, she receiv'd me with a greate deale of ioy; and the nurse's fancying, because I had more complexion and favour then is usuall in so young children, that I should not live, my mother became fonder of me, and more endeavour'd to nurse me. As soone as I was wean'd a French woman was taken to be my drie nurse, and I was taught to speake French and English together. My mother, while she was with child of me, dreamt that she was walking in the garden with my father, and that a starre came downe into her hand, with other circumstances, which, though I have often heard, I minded not enough to remember perfectly; only my father told her, her dreame signified she should have a daughter of some extraordinary eminency; which thing, like such vaine prophecies, wrought as farre as it

the siege of Nottingham-castle: and as the treatment Sir Allen Apsley and his lady gave their prisoners forms a striking contrast with that which it will appear at the end of the history was practised by some of his successors, at a time when mildness seemed most requisite, and was most professed. Perhaps prejudice will render it incredible that in the Bastile of Paris, which has become a proverbial expression to signify cruel durance, the conduct of the murdered governor resembled that of Sir Allen Apsley; it is nevertheless true.

could

could its own accomplishment*: for my father and mother fancying me then beautifull, and more than ordinarily apprehensive, applied all their cares, and spar'd no cost to emprove me in my education, which procur'd me the admiration of those that flatter'd my parents. By that time I was foure yeares old I read English perfectly, and having a greate memory, I was carried to sermons, and while I was very young could remember and repeate them so exactly, and being caress'd, the love of praise tickled me, and made me attend more heedfully. When I was about 7 yeares of age, I remember I had att one time 8 tutors in severall quallities, languages, musick, dancing, writing, and needlework, but my genius was quite averse from all but my booke, and that I was so eager of, that my mother thinking it preiudic'd my health, would moderate me in it; yet this rather animated me then kept me back, and every moment I could steale from my play I would employ in any booke I could find, when my own were lockt up from me. After dinner and supper I still had an hower allow'd me to play, and then I would steale into some hole or other to read. My father would have me learne Latine, and I was so apt that I outstript my brothers who were at schoole, allthough my father's chaplaine that was my tutor

was a pittifull dull fellow. My brothers, who had a greate deale of witt, had some emulation at the progresse I made in my learning, which very well pleas'd my father, tho' my mother would have been contented, I had not so wholly addicted myselfe to that as to neglect my other quallities: as for musick and dancing I profited very little in them; and would never practise my lute or harpsicords but when my masters were with me; and for my needle I absolutely hated it; play among other children I despis'd, and when I was forc'd to entertaine such as came to visitt me, I tir'd them with more grave instructions then their mothers, and pluckt all their babies to pieces, and kept the children in such awe, that they were glad when I entertain'd myselfe with elder company; to whom I was very acceptable, and living in the house with many persons that had a greate deale of witt; and very profitable serious discourses being frequent at my father's table and in my mother's drawing roome, I was very attentive to all, and gather'd up things that I would utter againe to greate admiration of many that tooke my memory and imitation for witt. It pleas'd God that thro' the good instructions of my mother, and the sermons she carried me to, I was convinc'd that the knowledge of God was the most excellent study,

* This is an ingenious way of accounting for the fulfilment of superstitious predictions and expectations, which might frequently with close attention be traced to their source, as is here done. It is clear that in the present case it occasioned a peculiar care to be taken of her education; and this again caused her mind and disposition to take that singular stamp which attracted the notice of Mr. Hutchinson, and seller of state in her beloved, but short-lived, republic. When the reader shall have followed her to the end of her labors, let him judge whether there could be any situation to which she was not adequate.

and accordingly applied mysele to it, and to practise as I was taught: I us'd to exhort my mother's maides much, and to turne their idle discourses to good subjects; but I thought, when I had done this on the Lord's day, and every day perform'd my due taskes of reading and praying, that then I was free to anie thing that was not sin, for I was not at that time convinc'd of the vanity of conversation which was not scandalously wicked: I thought it no sin to learne or heare wittie songs and amorous sonnetts or poems, and twenty things of that kind, wherein I was so apt that I became the confident in all the loves that were

managed among my mother's young weomen, and there was none of them but had many lovers and some particular friends belov'd above the rest; among these I have† * * * * *—Any one mention'd him to me, I told them I had forgotten those extravagancies of my infancy, and knew now that he and I were not equall; but I could not for many yeares heare his name, without several inward emotions * * * Five years after me my mother had a daughter that she nurst at her owne brest, and was infinitely fond of above all the rest, and I being of too serious a temper was not so pleasing to my† * * * * *

The CHARACTER of COLONEL HUTCHINSON.—Written by his Widow.

[From MEMOIRS of The LIFE of COLONEL HUTCHINSON.]

“ TO MY CHILDREN.”

“**T**HEY who dote on mortall excellencies, when by the inevitable fate of all things fraile, their adored idols are taken from them, may lett loose the winds of passion to bring in a flood of sorrow; whose ebbing tides carry away the deare memory of what they have lost; and when comfort is assay'd to such mourners, commonly all obiects are remov'd out

of their view, which may with their remembrance renew their grieve; and in time these remedies succeed, when oblivions curtaine is by degrees drawn over the dead face, and things lesse lovely are liked, while they are not view'd together with that which was most excellent: but I that am under a command not to grieve att the common rate of desolate woe-

† At this place is a great chasm, many leaves being torn out apparently by the writer herself.

‡ This sentence appears to relate to some amour in which Mrs. H. was disappointed. Here the story of herself abruptly ends.

men*, while I am studying which way to moderate my woe, and if it were possible to augment my love, can for the present find out none more iust to your deare father nor consolatory to myselfe then the preservation of his memory, which I need not guild with such flattring commendations as the hired preachers doe equally give to the truly and titularly honorable; a naked undrest narrative, speaking the simple truth of him, will deck him with more substantiall glorie, then all the panegyricks the best pens could ever consecrate to the vertues of the best men.

“Indeed that resplendant body of light, which the beginning and ending of his life made up, to discover the deformities of this wicked age, and to instruct the erring children of this generation, will through my apprehension and expression shine as under a very thick clowd, which will obscure much of their lustre; but there is need of this medium to this world’s weak eies, which I feare hath but few people in it so vertuous as can believe, because they find themselves so short, any other could make so large a progresse in the race of piety, honor, and vertue: but I am almost stopt before I set forth to trace his steps; finding the number of them by which he still outwent himselfe more then my unperfect arithmetick can count, and the exact figure of them such as my unskillfull pen cannot describe.

I feare to iniure that memory which I would honor, and to disgrace his name with a poore monument; but when I have beforehand layd this necessary caution, and ingentiously confess’d that through my inabillity either to receive or administer much of that wealthy stock of his glory that I was intrusted with for the benefitt of all, and particularly his owne posterity, I must withhold a greate part from them, I hope I shall be pardon’d for drawing an imperfect image of him, especially when even the rudest draught that endeavours to counterfeit him, will have much delightfull lovelienesse in it.

“Let not excesse of love and delight in the streame make us forgett the fountaine, he and all his excellencies came from God, and flow’d back into their owne spring; there lett us seeke them, thither lett us hasten after him; there having found him, lett us cease to bewaile among the dead that which is risen, or rather was immortall; his soule converst with God so much when he was here, that it reioyces to be now eternally freed from interruption in that blessed exercise; his vertues were recorded in heaven’s annalls, and can never perish, by them he yett teaches us and all those to whose knowledge they shall arrive: ’tis only his fetters, his sins, his infirmities, his diseases, that are dead never to revive againe, nor would wee have them; they were his enemies and

* The command of her husband at his death. It will be readily admitted that she does indeed not grieve after any common rate, but with that noble sorrow which raises instead of depressing the soul: it would be an affront to the reader’s taste to point out the beauties of this dirge; but it is only a just commendation of our authoress’s judgment and modesty to observe, that having shown her ability to ornament and embellish, she confines herself to such occasions as are most suitable, and employs the greatest simplicity in her narrative.

ours; by faith in Christ he vanquisht them: our coniunction, if wee had any with him, was undissoluble, if wee were knitt together by one spiritt into one body of Christ, wee are so still, if wee were mutually united in one love of God, good men, and goodnesse, wee are so still; what is it then we waile in his remoove? the distance? faithlesse fooles! sorrow only makes it; let us but ascend to God in holy ioy for the greate grace given his poore servant, and he is there with us. He is only remov'd from the mallice of his enemies, for which wee should not expresse love to him in being afflicted, wee may mourne for ourselves that wee come so tardily after him, that wee want his guide and assistance in our way, and yet if our teares did not putt out our eies wee should see him even in heaven, holding forth his flaming lamp of vertuous examples and precepts to light us through the darke world. It is time that I lett in to your knowledge that splendor which while it sheares and enlightens your heavy senses, let us remember to give all his and all our glorie to God alone, who is the father and fountaine of all light and excellence.

“Desiring, if my treacherous memory have not lost the dearest treasure that ever I committed to its trust, to relate to you his holy, vertuous, honorable life, I would put his picture in the front of his booke*, but my unskillfull hand will iniure him. Yet to such of you as have not seene him to remember his person, I leave this—

“HIS DESCRIPTION.

“He was of a middle stature, of a slender and exactly well-proportion'd shape in all parts, his complexion fair, his hayre of a light browne, very thick sett in his youth, softer then the finest silke, curling into loose greate rings att the ends, his eies of a lively grey, well-shaped and full of life and vigour, graced with many becoming motions, his visage thinne, his mouth well made, and his lipps very ruddy and gracefull, allthough the nether chap shut over the upper, yett it was in such a manner as was not unbecomming, his teeth were even and white as the purest ivory, his chin was something long, and the mold of his face, his forehead was not very high, his nose was rays'd and sharpe, but withall he had a most amiable countenance, which carried in it something of magnanimity and maiesty mixt with sweetnesse, that at the same time bespoke love and awe in all that saw him; his skin was smooth and white, his legs and feete excellently well made, he was quick in his pace and turnes, nimble and active and gracefull in all his motions, he was apt for any bodily exercise, and any that he did became him, he could dance admirably well, but neither in youth nor riper yeares made any practise of it, he had skill in fencing such as became a gentle man, he had a greate love to musick, and often diverted himselfe with a violl, on which he play'd masterly, he had an exact care and iudgement in other mu-

* The editor is happy to have it in his power to do this in a manner that will be gratifying to the lovers of the arts. The original pictures of Mr. and Mrs. Hutchinson, with their two children, were found by him in their house at Owthorpe, and are now deposited, along with the manuscript, at Messrs Longman's and Co.

sick, he shott excellently in bowes and gunns, and much us'd them for his exercise, he had greate iudgment in paintings*, graving, sculpture, and all liberal arts, and had many curiosities of vallue in all kinds, he tooke greate delight in perspective glasses, and for his other rarities was not so much affected with the antiquity as the merit of the worke—he tooke much pleasure in emproovement of grounds, in planting groves and walkes, and fruite-trees, in opening springs and making fish-ponds†; of country recreations he lov'd none but hawking, and in that was very eāger and much delighted for the time he us'd it, but soone left it of; he was wonderful neate, cleanly and gentile in his habitt, and had a very good fancy in it, but he left off very eāly the wearing of aniething that was costly, yett in his plainest negligent habitt appear'd very much a gentleman; he had more addresse than force of body, yet the courage of his soule so supplied his members that he never wanted strength when he found occasion to employ it; his conversation was very pleasant for he was naturally chearfull, had a ready witt and apprehension; he was eāger in every thing he did, earnest in dispute, but withall very rationally, so that he was seldome overcome, every thing that it was necessary for him to doe he did with delight, free and unconstrein'd, he hated cerimonious complement, but yett had a naturall civillity and complaisance to all people, he was of a tender constitution, but through

the vivacity of his spirit could undergo labours, watchings and iourneyes, as well as any of stronger compositions; he was rheumatick, and had a long sicknesse and distemper occasion'd thereby two or three yeares after the warre ended, but elce for the latter halfe of his life was healthy tho' tender, in his youth and childhood he was sickly, much troubled with weaknesse and tooth akes, but then his spiritts carried him through them; he was very patient under sicknesse or payne or any common accidints, but yet upon occasions, though never without iust ones, he would be very angrie, and had even in that such a grace as made him to be fear'd, yet he was never outrageous in passion; he had a very good facultie in perswading, and would speake very well pertinently and effectually without premeditation upon the greatest occasions that could be offer'd, for indeed his iudgment was so nice, that he could never frame any speech beforehand to please himselfe, but his invention was so ready and wisdom so habituall in all his speeches, that he never had reason to repent himselfe of speaking at any time without ranking the words beforehand, he was not talkative yett free of discourse, of a very spare diett, not much given to sleepe, an eāly riser when in health, he never was at any time idle, and hated to see any one elce soe, in all his naturall and ordinary inclinations and composure, there was something extraordinary and tending to vertue, beyond what I

* There remained some few of these at Owthorpe unspoiled, but many were spoiled by neglect, at the death of the last possessor.

† Many traces of his taste, judgment, and industry, in each of these, were to be seen at the distance of 140 years.

can describe, or can be gather'd from a bare dead description; there was a life of spiritt and power in him that is not to be found in any copie drawne from him: to summe up therefore all that can be sayd of his outward frame and disposition wee must truly conclude, that it was a very handsome and well furnisht lodging prepar'd for the reception of that prince, who in the administration of all excellent vertues reign'd there awhile, till he was called back to the pallace of the universall emperor*.

“ HIS VERTUES.

“ To number his vertues, is to give the epitome of his life†, which was nothing elce but a progresse from one degree of vertue to another, till in a short time he arriv'd to that height, which many longer lives could never reach, and had I but the power of rightly disposing and relating them, his single example would be more instructive then all the rules of the best moralists, for his practise was of a more devine extraction, drawne from the word of God, and wrought up by the assistance of his Spiritt; therefore in the head of all his vertues, I shall sett that which was the head and spring of them all, his Christianity—for this alone is the true royall blood that runs through the whole body of vertue, and every pretender to that glorious famely, who hath no tincture of it, is an imposter and a

spurious bratt. This is that sacred fountaine which baptizeth all the gentile vertues, that so immortalize the names of Cicero, Plutarch, Seneca, and all the old philosophers; here in they are regenerated and take a new name and nature; dig'd up in the willdernesse of nature, and dipt in this living spring, they are planted and flourish in the Paradice of God.

“ By Christianitie I intend that universall habitt of grace which is wrought in a soule by the regenerating spiritt of God whereby the whole creature is resign'd up into the divine will and love, and all its actions design'd to the obedience and glory of its maker. As soone as he had improov'd his naturall understanding with the acquisition of learning, the first studies he exercis'd himselfe in, were principles of religion, and the first knowledge he labour'd for was a knowledge of God, which by a dilligent examination of the scripture, and the severall doctrines of greate men pretending that ground he at length obtain'd.—Afterward when he had layd a sure and orthodox foundation in the doctrine of the free grace of God given us by Jesus Christ, he began to survey the superstructures, and to discover much of the hay and stubble of man's inventions in God's worship which his spiritt burnt up in the day of their triall. His faith being established in the truth, he was full of love to God and all his saints‡. He hated

* Is not here Plato's system pourtray'd in language worthy of that sublime and eloquent philosopher?

† Highly panegyricall as the character Mrs. Hutchinson here gives of her husband may appear, yet every point of it will be completely exemplified in the narrative; but if the widow's fondness for his memory should have led her into some excess, who will blame it?

‡ Saints. An expression commonly used in that time to signify good and religious people.

persecution for religion, and was allwayes a champion for all religious people against all their greate oppressors. He detested all scoffes att any practise of worship though such a one as he was not perswaded of. Whatever he practiz'd in religion was neither for faction nor advantage, but contrary to it, and purely for conscience sake. As he hated outsides in religion so could he worse endure, those apostacies and those denials of the Lord and base compliances with his adversaries, which timorous men practise under the name of prudent and iust condescensions to avoid persecution. Christianity being in him as the fountaine of all his vertues, and diffusing itselfe into every streame, that of his Prudence falls into the next mention. He from a child was wise, and sought to by many that might have bene his fathers for councell, which he could excellently give to himselfe and others, and whatever crosse event in any of his affaires may give occasion to fooles to overlooke the wisdom of the designe, yett he had as greate a foresight, as strong a iudgment, as cleare an apprehension of men and things as no man more. He had rather a firme impression than a greate memory, yett he was forgettful of nothing but injuries. His owne integritie made him credulous of other mens, till reason and experience convinc'd him, and as unapt to believe cautions which could not be receiv'd without entertaining ill opinions of men, yett he had wisdom enough never to committ

himselfe a traytor, though he was once wickedly betrey'd by friends whom necessity and not mistake forc'd him to trust*. He was as ready to heare as to give councell, and never pertinacious in his will when his reason was convinc'd. There was no opinion which he was most settled in either concerning devine or humane things but he would patiently and impartially heare it debated. In matters of faith his reason allwayes submitted to the word of God, and what he could not comprehend he would believe because 'twas written, but in all other things, the greatest names in the world could never lead him without reason: he would deliberate when there was time, but never lost an opportunity of anie thing that was to be done by tedious dispute. He would heare as well as speake, and yett never spoke impertinently or unseasonably. He very well understood himselfe his owne advantages, naturall parts, guifts, and acquirements, yett so as neither to glorie of them to others, nor overvallue himselfe for them, for he had an excellent vertuous modesty, which shutt out all vanity of mind, and yett admitted that true understanding of himselfe which was requisite for the best improovement of all his tallents; he no lesse understood and was more heedfull to remarke his defects, imperfections, and disadvantages, but that too only to excite his circumspection concerning them, not to damp his spiritt in any noble enterprize. He had a noble spiritt of government, both

* It is not known what peculiar transaction this refers to, though it may be conjectured to refer to the false protestations of Monk and Sir Ashley Cooper at the restoration; whom he and many others trusted much against their will.

in civill, military, and œcumenicall * administrations, which forc'd even from unwilling subjects a love and reverence of him, and endear'd him to the soules of those rejoyc'd to be govern'd by him. He had a native maiesty that struck an awe of him into the hearts of men, and a sweete greatnesse that commanded love. He had a cleare discerning of men's spirits, and knew how to give every one their iust weight, he contemn'd none that were not wicked, in whatever low degree of nature or fortune they were otherwise: where-ever he saw wisdom, learning, or other vertues in men, he honor'd them highly, and admir'd them to their full rate, but never gave himselfe blindly up to the conduct of the greatest master. Love itselfe, which was as powerfull in his as in any soule, rather quick'ned then blinded the eies of his iudgment in discerning the imperfections of those that were most deare to him. His soule ever reign'd as king in the internall throne, and never was captive to his sence; religion and reason, its two favour'd counsellors, tooke order that all the passions kept within their owne just bounds, there did him good service, and further'd the publick weale. He found such felicity in that proportion of wisdom that he enjoyed, as he was a greate lover of that which advanc'd it, learning and the arts, which he not only honor'd in others, but had by his industry arriv'd to be himselfe a farre greater schollar then is absolutely requisite for a gentleman. He had many excellent attainments, but he no lesse evidenc'd his wisdom in knowing how to ranke and use them, then in gain-

ing them. He had witt enough to have bene subtile and cunning, but he so abhorr'd dissimulation that I cannot say he was either. Greatnesse of courage would not suffer him to put on a vizard, to secure him from any, to retire into the shaddow of privacy and silence was all his prudence could effect in him. It will be as hard to say which was the predominant vertue in him, as which is so in its owne nature. He was as excellent in iustice as in wisdom—the greatest advantage, nor the greatest danger, nor the dearest interest or friend in the world could not prevaile on him to pervert justice even to an enemy. He never profess'd the thing he intended not, nor promis'd what he believ'd out of his owne power, nor fail'd the performance of anything that was in his power to fulfill. Never fearing anything he could suffer for the truth, he never at any time would refreine a true or give a false witness; he lov'd truth so much that he hated even sportive lies and gulleries. He was so just to his owne honour that he many times forbore things lawfull and delightfull to him, rather than he would give any one occasion of scandall. Of all lies he most hated hipocrisie in religion, either to complie with changing governments or persons, without a reall perswasion of conscience, or to practise holy things to gett the applause of men or any advantage.—As in Religion so in Friendship, he never profest love when he had it not, nor disguiz'd hate or aversion, which indeed he never had to any party or person, but to their sins: and lov'd even his bitterest enemies so well, that I am witness how his soule mourn'd for them,

* Œcumenicall.—Domestick.

and how heartely he desir'd their conversion. If he were defective in any part of iustice, it was when it was in his power to punish those who had iniur'd him, whom I have so often knowne him to recompence with favours instead of revenge, that his friends us'd to tell him if they had any occasion to make him favourably partiall to them they would provoke him by an iniury. He was as faithfull and constant to his friends as mercifull to his enemies: nothing griev'd him more than to be oblig'd, where he could not hope to returne itt. He that was a rock to all assaults of might and violence, was the gentlest easie soule to kindnesse, that the least warme sparke of that melted him into anie thing that was not sinfull. There never was a man more exactly iust in the performance of duties to all relations and all persons. Honor, obedience, and love to his father, were so naturall and so lasting in him, that it is impossible to imagine a better sonne than he was, and whoever would pray for a blessing in children to any one, could but wish them such a sonne as he*. He never repin'd at his father's will in anie thing, how much soever it were to his preiudice, nor would endure to heare anie one say his father was not so kind to him as he might have bene, but to his dying day preserv'd his father's memory with such tender affection and reverence as was admirable, and had that high regard for his mother-in-law and the children she brought his father, as he could not have bene more dearly concern'd in all their interest if she had bene his owne mother—which

all things consider'd, although they were deserving persons, was an example of piety and goodnesse that will not easily be matcht. For coniugal affection to his wife, it was such in him, as whosoever would draw out a rule of honour, kindnesse, and religion, to be practiz'd in that estate, need no more, but exactly draw out his example; never man had a greater passion for a woman, nor a more honourable esteeme of a wife, yet he was not uxorious, nor remitted not that iust rule which it was her honour to obey, but manag'd the reines of government with such prudence and affection that she who would not delight in such an honourable and advantageable subjection, must have wanted a reasonable soule: he govern'd by perswasion, which he never employ'd but to things honorable and profitable for herselfe; he lov'd her soule and her honor more than her outside, and yet he had even for her person a constant indulgence, exceeding the common temporary passions of the most uxorious fooles: if he esteem'd her att a higher rate then she in herselfe could have deserv'd, he was the author of that vertue he doted on, while she only reflected his own glories upon him: all that she was, was *him*, while he was here, and all that she is now at best but his pale shade. So liberall was he to her and of so generous a temper, that he hated the mention of sever'd purses: his estate being so much at her dispose that he never would receive an account of anie thing she expended; so constant was he in his love, that when she ceast to be young and lovely, he

* This we shall find called in question by his mother-in-law, and will be discussed in the course of the history.

began to shew most fondnesse, he lov'd her at such a kind and generous rate as words cannot expresse, yet even this, which was the highest love he or anie man could have, was yet bounded by a superior, he lov'd her in the Lord as his fellow creature, not his idoll, but in such a manner as shew'd that an affection bounded in the just rules of duty, far exceeds every way all the irregular passions in the world. He lov'd God above her and all the other dear pledges of his heart, and at his command and for his glorie chearefully resign'd them. He was as kinde a father, as deare a brother, as good a master, and as faithfull a friend as the world had, yet in all these relations, the greatest indulgence he could have in the world never prevail'd on him to indulge vice in any the dearest person, but the more deare any was to him, the more was he offended at any thing that might take of the lustre of their glorie. As he had great severity against errors and follies pertinaciously persued, so had he the most merciful, gentle, and compassionate frame of spirit that can be imagin'd to those who became sensible of their errors and frailties, although they had bene never so iniurious to himselfe.

“Nor was his soule lesse shining in honour then in love. Pietie being still the bond of all his other vertues, there was nothing he durst not doe or suffer, but sin against God, and therefore as he never regarded his life in any noble and just enterprize, so he never staked it in any rash or unwarrantable hazard. He was never surpriz'd, amaz'd, nor confounded with greate difficulties or dangers, which rather serv'd to animate then distract his spiritts: he had made up his ac-

counts with life and death, and fixt his purpose to entertaine both honorably, so that no accident ever dismay'd him, but he rather reioic'd in such troublesome conflicts as might signalize his generosity. A truer or more lively vallour there never was in anie man, but in all his actions, it ever marcht in the same file with wisdom. He understood well, and as well perform'd when he undertooke it, the millitary art in all parts of it: he naturally lov'd the employment as it suited with his active temper, more then any, conceiving a mutual delight in leading those men that lov'd his conduct; and when he commanded souldiers, never was man more loved and revered by all that were under him: for he would never condescend to them in anie thing they mutinously sought, nor suffer them to seeke what it was fitt for him to provide, but prevented them by his loving care; and while he exercis'd his authority no way but in keeping them to their iust duty, they ioy'd as much in his commands, as he in their obedience: he was very liberall to them, but ever chose iust times and occasions to exercise it. I cannot say whether he were more truly magnanimous or lesse proud: he never disdain'd the meanest person, nor flatter'd the greatest; he had a loving and sweete courtesie to the poorest, and would often employ many spare howers with the commonest souldiers and poorest labourers, but still so ordering his familiarity as it never rays'd them to a contempt, but entertained still at the same time a reverence with love of him: he ever preserv'd himselfe in his owne rank, neither being proud of it so as to despise any inferior, nor lettting fall that iust decorum which his honor obli-

ged him to keepe up. He was as farre from envie of superiors as from contemning them that were under him : he was above the ambition of vaine titles, and so well contented with the even ground of a gentleman, that no invitation could have prevail'd upon him to advance one step that way ; he lov'd substantiall not ayrie honor : as he was above seeking or delighting in emptie titles for himself, so he neither denied or envied any man's due precedency, but pittied those that tooke a glorie in that which had no foundation of vertue. As little did he seeke after popular applause, or pride himsele in it, if at any time it cried up his just deserts ; he more delighted to doe well then to be prays'd, and never sett vulgar commendations at such a rate, as to act contrary to his owne conscience or reason for the obtaining them, nor would forbear a good action which he was bound to, though all the world disliked it, for he ever look'd on things as they were in themselves, not through the dimme spectacles of vulgar estimation. As he was farre from a vaine affectation of popularity, so he never neglected that iust care that an honest man ought to have of his reputation, and was as carefull to avoyd the appearances of evill as evill itselfe ; but if he were evill spoken of for truth or righteousness sake, he rejoyc'd in taking up the reproach ; which all good men that dare beare their testimony against an evill generation must suffer. Though his zeale for truth and vertue, caus'd the wicked with the sharpe edges of their mallicious tongues, to attempt to shave of the glories from his head, yett his

honor springing from the fast roote of vertue, did but grow the thicker and more beautiful for all their endeavours to cut it* of. He was as free from avarice as from ambition and pride. Never had any man a more contented and thankfull heart for the estate that God had given, but it was a very narrow compasse for the exercise of his greate heart. He lov'd hospitallity as much as he hated riott : he could contentedly be without things beyond his reach, though he tooke very much pleasure in all those noble delights that exceeded not his faculties. In those things that were of meere pleasure, he lov'd not to aime at that he could not attaine : he would rather weare clothes absolutely plaine, then pretending to gallantry, and would rather chuse to have none then meane iewells or pictures, and such other things as were not of absolute necessity : he would rather give nothing then a base reward or present, and upon that score, liv'd very much retir'd, though his nature were very sociable and delighted in going into and receiving company ; because his fortune would not allow him to doe it in such a noble manner as suited with his mind. He was so truly magnanimous that prosperity could never lift him up in the least, nor give him any tincture of pride or vaine-glory, nor diminish a generall affability, curtesie, and civillity, that he had allwayes to all persons. When he was most exalted he was most mercifull and compassionate to those that were humbled. At the same time that he vanquisht any enemy, he cast away all his ill-will to him, and entertain'd thoughts of love and kindnesse as soone as

* Samson and Dalilah.

he ceast to be in a posture of opposition. He was as farre from meannesse as from pride, as truly generous as humble, and shew'd his noble spiritt more in adversity then in his prosperous condition: he vanquisht all the spite of his enemies by his manly suffering, and all the contempts they could cast at him were theirs, not his, shame.

His whole life was the rule of temperance in meate, drinke, apparell, pleasure, and all those things that may be lawfully enjoy'd, and herein his temperance was more excellent then in others, in whom it is not so much a vertue, but proceeds from want of appetite or gust of pleasure; in him it was a true, wise, and religious government of the desire and delight he tooke in the things he enjoy'd. He had a certeine activity of spiritt which could never endure idlenesse either in himselfe or others, and that made him eager for the time he indulg'd it as well in pleasure as in businesse; indeed, though in his youth he exercis'd innocent sports a little while, yett afterwards his businesse was his pleasure; but how intent soever he were in anie-

thing, how much soever it delighted him, he could freely and easily cast it away when God called him to something elce.—He had as much modesty as could consist with a true vertuous assurance, and hated an impudent person. Neither in youth nor riper age could the most faire or enticeing weomen ever draw him so much as into unnecessary familiariety or vaine converse or dalliance with them, yet he despis'd nothing of the female sex but their follies and vanities; wise and vertuous weomen he lov'd, and delighted in all pure, holy, and unblameable conversation with them, but so as never to excite scandall or temptation. Scurrilous discourse even among men he abhorr'd, and though he sometimes tooke pleasure in witt and mirth, yett that which was mixt with impurity he never would endure. The heate of his youth a little inclin'd him to the passion of anger, and the goodnesse of his nature to those of love and grieve, but reason was never dethron'd by them, but continued governess and moderator in his soul*.”

MEMOIRS of LOPE DE VEGA.

[From LORD HOLLAND'S ACCOUNT of his LIFE and WRITINGS.]

“THE wonders of Lope de Vega's life consist indeed more in the number of his productions than the singularity of his adventures; yet at an early period of life he was not exempt from that spirit of enterprise which pervaded all ranks and descriptions

* In this place Mrs. Hutchinson has written, “All this and more is true, but I so much dislike the manner of relating it, that I will make another assay.” And accordingly she proceeds to write his character over again, but it has the appearance of being much more laboured, and much less characteristick, and therefore the former is preferred.

At the same place is written: “This book was written by Lucy, the widow and relict of Col. John Hutchinson, of Owthorp.” J. H.

(Julius Hutchinson, grandfather of the Editor.)

of his countrymen. His friend and encomiast Perez de Montalvan relates that at about the age of thirteen or fourteen he was impelled by so restless a desire of seeing the world, that he resolved to escape from school; and having concerted his project with a school-fellow, they actually put it into execution. They had taken the precaution of providing some money for their expedition, but they had not been equally provident in calculating the duration of their finances; for, after buying a mule at Segovia, it was not till their arrival at Astorga that they perceived that the scantiness of their purse would not permit them to proceed any farther on their travels. This unforeseen difficulty disconcerted our young adventurers, and they resolved to abandon their scheme as hastily as they had undertaken it. They had returned as far as Segovia, when the necessity of procuring money compelled them to offer some trinkets to sale at a silversmith's. The tradesman was a cautious Spaniard: he suspected that they had stolen the trinkets, and prudently conducted them before the magistrate of the place. He was fortunately a man of moderation, and confined the exercise of his authority to appointing a constable to conduct them back to Madrid.

"The admiration and surprise with which the wisdom of this decision and the small expence attending its execution are mentioned by Montalvan, are striking proofs that vexatious and expensive practices had already infected the administration of police in Spain.

"Lope, according to his biographers, betrayed marks of genius at a very early age, as well as a singular propensity to poetry.

They assure us that at two years old these qualities were perceptible in the brilliancy of his eyes; that ere he attained the age of five he could read Spanish and Latin; and that before his hand was strong enough to guide the pen, he recited verses of his own composition, which he had the good fortune to barter for prints and toys with his playfellows. Thus even in his childhood he not only wrote poetry, but turned his poetry to account; an art in which he must be allowed afterwards to have excelled all poets antient or modern. The date however of his early productions must be collected from his own assertions, from probable circumstances, and the corresponding testimony of his friends and contemporaries; for they were either not printed at the time, or all copies of the impression have long since been lost.

"He was born at Madrid on the 25th of November 1562: and as he informs us in the *Laurel de Apolo* that his father was a poet, we may conjecture that his example had its effect in deciding Lope's early propensity to versification. He implies, however, in the same passage, that the discovery of his father's talent was accidental and after his death. The exact period when that event happened is uncertain; but Lope was an orphan when he escaped from school, and before that time he had by his own account not only written verses, but composed dramas in four acts, which, as he tells us, was then the custom:

*El capitan Virues, insignie ingenio,
Puso en tres actos la comedia, que antes
Andaba en quatro como pies de niño,
Que eran entonces niñas las comedias.—
Y yo las escribí de once y doce años
De a quatro actos, y de a quatro pliegos,
Porque cada acto un pliego contenia.*

Plays

Plays of three acts we owe to Virues' pen,
Which ne'er had crawl'd but on all fours
till then;
An action suited to that helpless age,
The infancy of wit, the childhood of the
stage.
Such did I write ere twelve years yet had
run,
Plays on four sheets, an act on every one.

“ Upon his return to Madrid he abandoned this mode of composition, and ingratiated himself with the bishop of Avila by several pastorals, and a comedy in three acts called *La Pastoral de Jacinto*. In his prologue to the *Pelegrino*, where he enumerates the plays he had then published, this comedy is not mentioned; from which we must infer that he did not print it, or that it is there inserted by some other name; as it is extremely common for Spanish plays of that period to have two titles. His friend Montalvan represents the production of this comedy as an epoch in the annals of the theatre, and a prelude to the reform which Lope was destined to introduce. It is probable that during this interval, between school and university, he composed several juvenile poems, which he may have retouched at a period when his name was sufficient to make any performance acceptable to the public. But the obscurity in which this part of his life is involved seems to prove that his efforts for literary fame were not hitherto attended with any extraordinary success. He shortly after studied philosophy at Alcala; and Montalvan makes a pompous relation of the satisfaction and delight which the duke of Alva experienced in receiving the young poet among the crowds that thronged to pay him court, and of the eagerness with which he engaged him in his service upon his

return from the university. A passage in the eclogue to Claudio implies that this event did not take place till after the unsuccessful expedition of the Armada. At any rate it does not appear what wonders he had hitherto performed to render his incense so peculiarly acceptable at so powerful a shrine, and the subsequent events of his life seem to contradict Montalvan's improbable relation. He wrote however his *Arcadia* at the instance of the duke of Alva. It is a mixture of prose and verse; of romance and poetry; of pastoral and heroic; the design of which was avowedly taken from Sannazaro, though its execution is pronounced by the Spanish critics to be decidedly superior to the model.

“ Soon after he had executed the command of the duke of Alva, he left his service and married. The duties of matrimony did not interfere with his favourite studies, which he seems to have cultivated with increased enthusiasm, till an unfortunate event compelled him to quit Madrid and his newly-established family. A gentleman of considerable rank and importance having indulged his wit at the expence of Lope and his compositions, the poet was incensed, hitched his critic into verse, and exposed him to the ridicule of the town in a poem called *a Romance*. His antagonist took fire, and challenged him to a contest in which he hoped to meet a poet to greater advantage than in a war of wit; but Lope de Vega had not neglected his fencing-master in his education, and accordingly

Tomando ya la espada, ya la pluma,
Now taking up the sword, and now the pen,
wounded his adversary so severely,
that his life was despaired of, and

Lope compelled to fly. He fixed upon Valencia as the place of his retreat. Here he probably first formed a friendship with Vicente Mariner, a Latin poet of that town, whose muse was as prolific as that of Lope himself, and not more parsimonious of her praise. He wrote panegyrics on most contemporary poets, and composed those on Quevedo in Greek. Among the millions of lines preserved in the king of Spain's libraries, are to be found several to the honour and memory of Lope, and one written in answer to his enemies, which, if it does not leave a favourable impression of the manners or of the poetry of the author, proves that he made common cause with talents so congenial to his own. The unhappy critic who had ventured to attack the phoenix of Spain, was sufficiently refuted by being called an ass.

Voce onager vultuque onager, pedibus-
que sinuque,
Ut nil non onagri nunc tua vita refert.

An ass in voice, face, feet, and senses too,
Nothing remains that is not ass in you.

"It is to be hoped that the two bards employed themselves better at Valencia than in composing such strains as these.

"Lope returned to Madrid in a few years, when all apprehensions of evil consequences from his adventure were allayed. He was probably soothing his imagination with prospects of domestic happiness, which his late absence had suspended, when he had the misfortune to lose his wife. The residence of Madrid, which he had so lately regarded as the summit of his wishes, now became insupportable; and scenes which had long been associated in his mind with ideas of present comfort and future reputation

served only to remind him of their loss. To fly from such painful recollections he hastily embarked on board the memorable Armada, which was then fitting out to invade our coasts. The fate of that expedition is well known; and Lope, in addition to his share in the difficulties and dangers of the voyage, saw his brother, to whose society he had run for refuge in his late calamity, expire in his arms. If there be any truth in the supposition that poets have a greater portion of sensibility in their frames than other men, it is fortunate that they are furnished by the nature of their occupations with the means of withdrawing themselves from its effects. The act of composition, especially of verse, abstracts the mind most powerfully from external objects. The poet therefore has always a refuge within reach; by inventing fictitious distress, he may be blunting the poignancy of real grief; while he is raising the affections of his readers, he may be allaying the violence of his own, and thus find an emblem of his own susceptibility of impression in that poetical spear which is represented as curing with one end the wounds it had inflicted with the other. Whether this fanciful theory be true or not, it is certain that poets have continued their pursuits with ardour under the pressure of calamity. Some indeed assert that the genius of Ovid drooped during his banishment; but we have his own testimony, and what, notwithstanding all such criticisms, is more valuable, many hundreds of his verses, to prove that this event, however it might have depressed his spirits, riveted him to the habits of composition, and taught him to seek for consolation where he had hitherto only found amusement. Thus, in
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an eclogue which the friendship of Pedro de Medina Medivilla consecrated to the memory of Lope's wife, the lamentations of the husband are supposed to have been actually furnished by our author. Two or three odes on the same subject are to be found in his works, and he informs us himself that during his unfortunate voyage he composed the *Hermosura de Angelica*, a poem which professes to take up the story of that princess where Ariosto had dropped it. The motive he assigns for this choice is curious. He found in Turpin that most of her remaining adventures took place in Spain, and, thinking it for the honour of his country, related them in twenty cantos.

"To complete what Ariosto had begun was no light undertaking, and the difficulty was not diminished by the publication only two years before of a poem on the same subject called *Las Lagrimas de Angelica*. This was written by Luis Barahona de Soto, and has always been esteemed one of the best poems in the Spanish language. It is mentioned with great praise by the curate in the examination of *Don Quixote's* library."—

"Such was the employment of Lope during this voyage of hardships, which, however alleviated, seem never totally to have been forgotten. The tyranny, cruelty, and above all the heresy of queen Elizabeth, are the perpetual objects of his poetical invective. When in 1602 he published this poem, written on board the *Armada*, he had the satisfaction of adding another on the death of a man who had contributed to complete the discomfiture of that formidable expedition. The *Dragontea* is an epic poem on the death of sir Francis Drake;

and the reader is informed, by a note in the first page, that wherever the word *Dragon* occurs, it is to be taken for the name of that commander. Tyrant, slave, butcher, and even coward, are supposed to be so applicable to his character, that they are frequently bestowed upon him in the course of the work without the assistance of an explanatory note.

"He returned a second time to Madrid in 1590, and soon after married again.

"In 1598, on the canonization of St. Isidore, a native of Madrid, he entered the list with several authors, and overpowered them all with the number if not with the merit of his performances. Prizes had been assigned for every style of poetry, but above one could not be obtained by the same person. Lope succeeded in the hymns; but his fertile muse, not content with producing a poem of ten cantos in short verse, as well as innumerable sonnets and romances, and two comedies on the subject, celebrated by an act of supererogation both the saint and the poetical competition of the day, in a volume of sprightly poems under the feigned name of *Tomé de Burguillos*. These were probably the best of Lope's productions on the occasion; but the concurring testimonies of critics agree that most of his verses were appropriate and easy, and that they far excelled those of his numerous competitors. This success raised him no doubt in the estimation of the public, to whom he was already known by the number and excellence of his dramatic writings. Henceforward the licences prefixed to his books do not confine themselves to their immediate object, the simple permission to publish, but contain long and laboured

laboured encomiums upon the particular merit of the work, and the general character and style of the author. This was probably the most fortunate period of his life. He had not, it is true, attained the summit of his glory, but he was rising in literary reputation every day: and as hope is often more delightful than possession, and there is something more animating to our exertions while we are panting to acquire than when we are labouring to maintain superiority, it was probably in this part of his life that he derived most satisfaction from his pursuits. About this time also we must fix the short date of his domestic comforts, of which, while he alludes to the loss of them, he gives a short but feeling description in his Eclogue to Claudio:

Yo vi mi pobre mesa in testimonio,
Cercada y rica de fragmentos mios,
Dulces y amargos rios
Del mar del matrimonio,
Y vi pagando su fatal tributo,
De tan alegre bien tan triste luto.

“The expressions of the above are very difficult, if not impossible, to translate, as the metaphors are such as none but the Spanish language will admit. The following is rather a paraphrase than a translation.

I saw a group my board surround,
And sure to me, though poorly spread,
’T was rich with such fair objects crown’d,
Dear bitter presents of my bed!
I saw them pay their tribute to the tomb,
And scenes so cheerful change to mourning and to gloom.

“Of the three persons who formed this family group, the son died at eight years and was soon followed by his mother; the daughter alone survived our poet. The spirit of Lope seems to have sunk under such

repeated losses. At a more enterprising period of life, he had endeavoured to drown his grief in the noise and bustle of a military life; he now resolved to sooth it in the exercise of devotion. Accordingly, having been secretary to the Inquisition, he shortly after became a priest, and in 1609 a sort of honorary member of the brotherhood of St. Francis. But devotion itself could not break in upon his habits of composition; and as he had about this time acquired sufficient reputation to attract the envy of his fellow poets, he spared no exertions to maintain his post, and repel the criticisms of his enemies. Among these the Spanish editors reckon the formidable names of Gongora and Cervantes.”—

“Before the death of Cervantes, which happened on the same day as that of Shakspeare, the admiration of Lope was become a species of worship in Spain. It was hardly prudent in any author to withhold incense from his shrine, much less to interrupt the devotion of his adherents. Such indeed was their intolerance, that they gravely asserted that the author of the *Spongia*, who had severely censured his works, and accused him of ignorance of the Latin language, deserved nothing short of death for such literary heresy. Nor was Lope himself entirely exempt from the irritability which is supposed to attend poets: he often speaks with peevishness of his detractors, and answers their criticisms, sometimes in a querulous, and sometimes in an insolent tone. The word Vega in Spanish signifies garden. In the title-page of his book was engraved a beetle expiring over some flowers, which he is upon the point of attacking. That the emblem

blem might not be misunderstood, this distich was also subjoined.

Audax dum Vegæ irrumpit scarabæus
in hortos,
Fragrantis periit victus odore rosæ.

At Vega's garden as the beetle flies,
O'erpower'd with sweets the daring insect dies.

“The vanity of the above conceit is at least equal to the wit.

“But in the prologue to the *Pelegrino*, and in some posthumous poems, he most unreasonably complains of the neglect, obscurity, and poverty in which his talents have been left. How are the expectations of genius ever to be fulfilled, if Lope, laden with honours and with pensions, courted by the great, and followed by the crowd, imagined that his fortunes were unequal to his deserts?

“He seldom passed a year without giving some poem to the press; and scarcely a month or even a week without producing some play upon the stage. His *Pastores de Belen*, a work in prose and verse on the Nativity, had confirmed his superiority in pastoral poems; and rhymes, hymns and poems without number on sacred subjects had evinced his zeal in the profession he embraced. Philip IV., the great patron of the Spanish theatre, to which he afterwards is said to have contributed compositions of his own, at the era of his accession found Lope in full possession of the stage, and in the exercise of unlimited authority over the authors, comedians, and audience. New honours and benefices were immediately heaped on our poet, and in all probability he wrote occasionally plays for the royal palace. He published about the same time *Los Triunfos de la Fe*; *Las Fortunas de Diana*; three no-

vels in prose (unsuccessful imitations of Cervantes); *Circe*, an heroic poem, dedicated to the count duke of Olivarez; and *Philomena*, a singular but tiresome allegory, in the second book of which he vindicates himself in the person of the nightingale from the accusation of his critics, who are there represented by the thrush.

“Such was his reputation that he began to distrust the sincerity of the public, and seems to have suspected that there was more fashion than real opinion in the extravagance of their applause. This engaged him in a dangerous experiment, the publication of a poem without his name. But whether the number of his productions had gradually formed the public taste to his own standard of excellence, or that his fertile and irregular genius was singularly adapted to the times, the result of this trial confirmed the former judgment of the public; and his *Soliloquies to God*, though printed under a feigned name, attracted as much notice and secured as many admirers as any of his former productions. Emboldened probably by this success, he dedicated his *Corona Tragica*, a poem on the queen of Scots, to pope Urban VIII., who had himself composed an epigram on the subject. Upon this occasion he received from that pontiff a letter written in his own hand, and the degree of doctor of theology. Such a flattering tribute of admiration sanctioned the reverence in which his name was held in Spain, and spread his fame through every catholic country. The cardinal Barberini followed him with veneration in the streets; the king would stop to gaze at such a prodigy; the people crowded round him wherever he appeared; the learned and the

the studious thronged to Madrid from every part of Spain to see this phoenix of their country this 'monster of literature;' and even Italians, no extravagant admirers in general of poetry that is not their own, made pilgrimages from their country for the sole purpose of conversing with Lope. So associated was the idea of excellence with his name, that it grew in common conversation to signify any thing perfect in its kind; and a Lope diamond, a Lope day, or a Lope woman, became fashionable and familiar modes of expressing their good qualities. His poetry was as advantageous to his fortune as to his fame: the king enriched him with pensions and chaplaincies, the pope honoured him with dignities and preferments: and every nobleman at court aspired to the character of his Mæcenas, by conferring upon him frequent and valuable presents. His annual income was not less than 1500 ducats, exclusive of the price of his plays, which Cervantes insinuates that he was never inclined to forego, and Montalvan estimates at 80,000. He received in presents from individuals as much as 10,500 more. His application of these sums partook of the spirit of the nation from which he drew them. Improvident and indiscriminate charity ran away with these gains, immense as they were, and rendered his life unprofitable to his friends and uncomfortable to himself. Though his devotion gradually became more fervent, it did not interrupt his poetical career. In 1630 he published the Laurel de Apolo, a poem of inestimable value to the Spanish philologists, as they are called in the jargon of our day, for it contains the names of more than 330 Spanish poets and their works. They

are introduced as claimants for the Laurel, which Apollo is to bestow; and as Lope observes of himself that he was more inclined to panegyric than to satire, there are few or any that have not at least a strophe of six or eight lines devoted to their praise. Thus the multitude of Castilian poets, which at that time was prodigious, and the exuberance of Lope's pen, have lengthened out to a work of ten books, or sylvas, an idea which has often been imitated in other countries, but generally confined within the limits of a song. At the end of the last sylva he makes the poets give specimens of their art, and assures us that many equalled Tasso, and even approached Ariosto himself; a proof that this celebrated Spanish poet gave the preference to the latter. After long disputes for the Laurel, the controversy at length ends, as controversies in Spain are apt to do, in the interference of the government; and Apollo agrees to refer the question to Philip IV., whose decision, either from reserve in the judge, or from modesty in the relator, who was himself a party concerned, is not recorded. Facts however prove that our poet could be no loser by this change of tribunal. He continued to publish plays and poems, and to receive every remuneration that adulation and generosity could bestow, till the year 1635, when religious thoughts had rendered him so hypochondriac that he could hardly be considered as in full possession of his understanding. On the 22d of August, which was Friday, he felt himself more than usually oppressed in spirits and weak with age; but he was so much more anxious about the health of his soul than of his body, that he would not avail himself of the privilege

privilege to which his infirmities entitled him, of eating meat; and even resumed the flagellation, to which he had accustomed himself, with more than usual severity. This discipline is supposed to have hastened his death. He fell ill on that night, and having passed the necessary ceremonies with excessive devotion, he expired on Monday the 26th of August, 1635.

“The sensation produced by his death, was, if possible, more astonishing than the reverence in which he was held while living. The splendour of his funeral, which was conducted at the charge of the

most munificent of his patrons, the duke of Sesa, the number and language of the sermons on that occasion, the competition of poets of all countries in celebrating his genius and lamenting his loss, are unparalleled in the annals of poetry, and perhaps scarcely equalled in those of royalty itself. The ceremonies attending his interment continued for nine days. The priests described him as a saint in his life, and represented his superiority over the classics in poetry as great as that of the religion which he professed was over the heathen.”

MEMOIRS of Dr. JOHN CLARK.

[From Dr. FENWICK'S SKETCH of his PROFESSIONAL LIFE.]

“**B**UT little is known of Dr. Clark's early years. His father, Mr. William Clark, was a respectable farmer at Graden in the parish of Roxburgh, at which place John, the subject of this memoir, was born in May 1744. Mr. William Clark had seven sons, (of which John was the eldest,) and three daughters.

“John was first sent to school at Linton, and afterwards removed to the grammar-school at Kelso about the year 1755, where Mr. Dobie, a respectable teacher and good classical scholar, was at that time master. In that situation he remained till 1760. His studious disposition, and the great progress he made in learning, determined his father to educate him for the church, and he was accordingly removed for that purpose, in 1760, to the university of Edinburgh.

These views were, however, unsuccessful. Whether his natural turn of mind led him to prefer the study of nature to abstract researches, or he received the bias from the character of the university, where the medical department is so justly pre-eminent, young Clark took no pleasure in the study of divinity, but expressed so strong and steady a predilection for medicine, that his father was induced to comply with his inclination. But this determination and his son's studies were unfortunately interrupted by the accident of a slate falling from a house, and wounding him on the head; which gave rise to very severe head-achs, and general nervous complaints, and was soon followed by a disordered state of the organs of digestion; a disease from which he was destined to suffer through life. Under these circumstances

stances Mr. Clark returned to Graden in the year 1761.

“As soon as he had recovered his health sufficiently, he was, at his own request, bound an apprentice to a Mr. Watson, at that time settled in Kelso, and who had been for many years a surgeon in the navy. From this we may conclude that his views were not then directed to that branch of the medical profession in which he afterwards became so distinguished. It is not known how long he remained with Mr. Watson; but there is reason to suppose that he did not leave him till the autumn of 1766, when he returned to Edinburgh to pursue his medical studies.

“By his diligence and abilities he there attracted the notice of the late Dr. Gregory, at that time professor of the practice of physic; a man not more distinguished by his professional talents, than by his private worth, and by his just discernment and generous protection of merit. The countenance of so eminent a man was in itself highly honourable and advantageous to a young student; but Dr. Gregory does not appear to have confined himself to mere approbation, but to have assisted him with his advice, and interested himself in his welfare with the activity of a friend. Mr. Clark had but too soon occasion for his professional assistance. The complaints in his stomach, which attacked him soon after the accident before mentioned, now increased to an alarming degree, aggravated most probably by his sedentary life and close application; and as they resisted all the remedies employed by Dr. Gregory to subdue them, he recommended it to Mr. Clark, as a last resource, to try the effects of a warm climate. In consequence of this advice, Mr. Clark's

friends solicited and obtained for him an appointment, as surgeon's mate, in the East India company's service—a situation in which, with the advantage of a warm climate, he enjoyed that of an opportunity of obtaining medical experience; nor can it be doubted, from his father's circumstances and the numerous family he had to support, that the acquirement of an immediate provision was also a material object with him. I have not been able to learn the precise time of Mr. Clark's leaving Edinburgh; but it is certain that he attended a course of medical lectures in London, before he entered on his appointment, as surgeon's mate, on board the *Talbot* Indiaman. In London he secured the good opinion of the celebrated Dr. William Hunter; and he often, through life, expressed his gratitude to him, for admitting him to his lectures without paying the usual fees. He knew how to estimate the spirit in which Dr. Hunter granted that indulgence, nor would his grateful disposition allow him to forget or depreciate any obligation, however small. It seems to me that such actions should not pass unnoticed: it is honourable to a young person to be thought worthy the patronage of eminent men; while, as proofs of their desire to encourage merit, such incidents, however trifling, reflect additional lustre on their abilities.

“On the 22d of March, 1768, the *Talbot* sailed from the Downs, and, after touching at St. Augustin's Bay in the island of Madagascar, anchored at Culpee, in the river of Bengal, on the 25th of August. In this situation the ship remained till the 22d of March, 1769; on which day, precisely a year after leaving the Downs, she began her voyage back to England. Mr. Clark,

on his return, had a tedious and disagreeable voyage, not reaching Scilly till the 5th of January, 1770. During the absence of the Talbot from England, her crew suffered much from sickness, as well in the river of Bengal, as on the voyage home; and Mr. Clark's diligence and judgment appear to great advantage, in the very accurate accounts he has preserved of the diseases, and of the methods of cure. On the 16th of February, 1771, he again sailed for India, in the same ship; reached Madras on the 25th of July, and, after remaining there a month, sailed for China, and arrived at Macao on the 19th of October, and Wampoa on the 25th. Here the Talbot continued till the 7th of March, 1772, when she began her voyage to England, and arrived in the Downs on the 1st of September. I have mentioned these few dates, as they enable us to judge of Mr. Clark's opportunities of making observations on the effects of long voyages, and of the climate of India on the human constitution, and of the diseases to which it is liable. To enter into details would extend this memoir much beyond the prescribed limits; they are preserved in his *Observations on the diseases which prevail in long voyages to hot climates*, a work first published in March, 1773. To what advantage Mr. Clark had turned his opportunities of obtaining professional experience, that work is an honorable proof; in the other object of his voyages, the improvement of his health, he was not so fortunate; his stomach complaints continued without remission in India, and seem indeed to have gathered additional force.

“The winter after his arrival in England was passed in London, and dedicated to a further attend-

ance on the hospitals, and to finishing and superintending the publication of his work. It had been communicated to sir John Sylvester, by whose advice it was published, and was dedicated to the court of directors of the company, from whom the author received a gratuity of a hundred guineas.

“Mr. Clark had no encouragement to return to India for the establishment of his health, and the high reputation which his work deservedly acquired, gave him reasonable hopes that he could derive from his profession, at home, advantages superior to any which the service of the company offered. He now, therefore, resigned his situation, and, turning his views to the medical branch of the profession, procured a diploma from the university of St. Andrew's. He applied there instead of Edinburgh, because the rules of the latter university required a further attendance on the medical schools, which would have retarded his establishment in practice.

“In the course of 1773, Dr. Clark settled as physician at Kelso, and soon acquired a considerable share of practice; but the situation was too limited to bound the views of a man who was conscious of such well-founded claims to public confidence, and he accordingly removed to Newcastle in 1775, upon Dr. Wilson's quitting it for London. He had now a wide field for the display of his abilities; but it must be acknowledged that he entered upon it under no common difficulties. Dr. Wilson, whose removal from Newcastle had induced him to settle there, had had but little business. The powerful recommendation of Dr. Askew had enabled Dr. Brown to take a decisive lead in the profession. Dr. Hall,

Hall, a man of knowledge and talents, had also considerable practice; and besides them there were other medical candidates for the public confidence, of very respectable characters and connections. It is not surprising that Dr. Clark, a stranger, and without introduction, advanced slowly against so powerful an opposition. But though the emolument of the profession was, in a great degree, preoccupied, he had an ample range for medical observation in the diseases of the poor; and neither his zeal for the improvement of his profession, nor his humanity, permitted him to neglect it. In his attendance on them, Dr. Clark could not fail to perceive the hardships which those laboured under from the want of medicines and advice, whose cases excluded them from the infirmary. To relieve this numerous class of sufferers, dispensaries had, for some years, been established in most of the principal towns of Great Britain; and it is manifest, that, without an institution of that nature, the provisions for the relief of the poor in sickness must be incomplete. These considerations induced Dr. Clark to propose the establishment of a dispensary, in Newcastle, in the beginning of April, 1777; a proposal in which he was joined by his friend Mr. Anderson, a surgeon of great respectability.

“Strange as it must now appear, the plan was immediately opposed by the physicians to the infirmary, as threatening destruction to that charity. It is probable the manner in which the proposal was made, might lead them to suspect that the conduct of the medical department was intended to be confined to the gentlemen who originally brought it forward; on which

account, Dr. Clark and his friend thought it right to express their desire to act in concert with the rest of the faculty: and thus, after an explanation had taken place between the parties, all opposition ceased, and the plan was, without delay, carried into execution.

“Though Dr Clark’s chief object in recommending a dispensary to the inhabitants of Newcastle, was the relief of the poor, he did not overlook those arrangements which might render it the means of extending the limits of our art. He accordingly provided for keeping accurate journals of the patients admitted, and of their cases, by which the nature of prevailing epidemics might be ascertained, the history of diseases illustrated, and the success of the modes of treatment more accurately known. He also drew up, and distributed among the poor who received relief at the dispensary, some very judicious rules for preventing the production and propagation of contagion: but this most important branch of the charity was left incomplete; no means of prevention were carried into the houses of the poor, nor was any board of health established for the purpose of enforcing the execution of the rules. Dr. Clark was, no doubt, aware of this defect; nor could he expect that his plan would prove adequate to the eradication of contagion; but the funds of the charity were by no means equal to the establishment of a board of health, and to the cleansing and purifying the habitations of the poor. He therefore adopted the only means in his power. This deficiency of the funds of the dispensary is very strongly stated in several of the early reports of its proceedings; and a lamentable proof of it is found in the failure of a proposal.

posals, made by Dr. Clark, for a general inoculation, in 1779, which was abandoned solely on that account. This very desirable object was not accomplished till 1786, from which time it has been continued annually.

“In 1783, Dr. Clark published a posthumous tract of Dr. Duguid Leslie, on the contagious catarrh which raged so widely during the preceding summer, together with a letter of his own to the author on the same subject. The work presents a very faithful history of the epidemic, with some judicious remarks on its treatment; but as it does not throw much additional light on that singular disease, his chief object in publishing it was probably to pay a tribute to the memory of his deceased friend, who was snatched by a pulmonary consumption from a profession, of which, had he lived, he would have proved an ornament.

“Doctor Clark’s practice had been long increasing, and was now become very extensive; but, unfortunately, while he reaped the fruit of his professional zeal and knowledge, he suffered every year more and more from ill health. His stomach complaints harassed him to a dreadful degree, and were accompanied by so great an irregularity in the action of the heart, especially on walking up an ascent, or other increased muscular motion, that he was led to suspect a local affection of that organ. Combined with this, he laboured under an almost total want of sleep, and all that endless train of sufferings which await on morbid irritability of the nervous system. These exhausting complaints did not, however, induce him to relax in his professional assiduity; and the effect of his great success in treating diseases, was

so great an increase of business, that for some time before Dr. Brown’s decease he had the most extensive practice of any physician in Newcastle. On that event, which happened early in 1788, Dr. Clark was, without opposition, elected physician to the Infirmary.

“Notwithstanding the bad state of his health, and the multiplicity of his engagements, Dr. Clark found time to revise his work on the diseases which prevail in long voyages to hot climates, of which, in 1792, he published a new edition. The many valuable additions which it contains, furnish satisfactory evidence of the excellent use he had made of his extensive experience; and as he has incorporated into it the substance of his *Observations on Fevers*, it is on this performance that his character as a medical writer rests. From this time the confidence of the public in his abilities daily increased, and soon put him in possession of as extensive business as has ever fallen to the share of any medical practitioner in the north of England.

“Dr. Clark had for some time called the attention of the governors to the defective state of the Newcastle Infirmary. The statutes for its regulation, which were first established in 1751, and of which the second and last edition was printed in the following year, had many of them fallen into disuse; and, from the great improvements in the management of hospitals introduced since that period, were unavoidably defective. A special court was therefore held November 6th, 1800, for their revisal, at which, in consequence of a report laid before them by Dr. Clark, it was resolved, ‘*That a committee of governors be appointed to take the statutes, rules, and orders, into consideration,*

deration, and to frame a code for the future conduct of the charity;’ with a further direction, to lay the result of their labours before the next quarterly court, or at latest before the general court in April. The alterations which Dr. Clark proposed were highly important, and extended to every branch of the management of the institution. The original building was itself, in many respects, defective; some of the wards were too large, and incapable of sufficient ventilation; many accommodations for the medical officers, which appear essential, were wanting; no separation of the medical and surgical patients could be made; and, finally, there was not room enough for the numbers claiming admission; and the difficulty of rejecting those who were proper objects, often led to the wards being in much too crowded a state. Dr. Clark proposed many judicious alterations to remedy these defects, and also drew up several very important regulations for the future conduct of the charity. He endeavoured to secure economy in the application of its funds, by the revival of the weekly committee, and by introducing a new mode of appointing the members, calculated to render it effective. A rule was established to prevent the election of medical officers being influenced by private solicitations or party spirit, which, where they take place, must often operate to the exclusion of merit. Nor did he overlook another most important object of hospitals, THE IMPROVEMENT OF MEDICAL SCIENCE. With a view to this he recommended ‘the keeping a journal of all instructive cases, or dissections, to be preserved in the hospital for the inspection of the physicians and surgeons; the keeping and preserving

monthly and annual returns of the several diseases of the persons admitted; and, lastly, the appropriation of a place in the Infirmary for the reception of anatomical preparations, and of a professional library.’

“Dr. Clark spared no trouble to make this code as perfect as possible, having not only consulted the best writers on the subject of hospitals, but also corresponded with several eminent physicians, whose situations in improved and well-conducted infirmaries furnished them with the best means of information. Nor did his zeal stop here. Thinking he observed a general lukewarmness towards the arrangements of the new code, he presented to every subscriber—‘The result of an inquiry into the state of various infirmaries; a comparative view of the success of the practice in the improved and in the old infirmaries, and a proposal for the improvement and extension of the Infirmary at Newcastle.’ It was his ambition to render it a model for the improvement of similar institutions; and he sought to secure the active co-operation of the governors in his measures, by giving them incontrovertible evidence of the great advantages to be expected from them. Dr. Clark’s views met with the unanimous concurrence of the committee, who published his explanatory report of the intended regulations, on the 26th of March, 1801. A further committee was appointed by a special court, held June 25th, in the same year, ‘to consider the expediency of the proposed internal improvements of the Infirmary, and to procure plans of the intended extension of the building, and estimates of the expense attending the same.’ A report of their proceedings and opinions thereon was ordered to be printed, and

and circulated among the governors before their anniversary meeting in August. At that general meeting it was unanimously resolved, '*That the Infirmary, in its then state, was but ill calculated to answer the benevolent purposes of such an institution; a committee was empowered to carry the projected improvements into execution, and a subscription opened to defray the necessary expenses.*'

"In the projected extension of the building, which thus received the unanimous sanction of the governors, were included wards for the reception of persons labouring under contagious fever; a provision without which, Dr. Clark justly observes, 'every infirmary must be very defective.' In the original plan, 12 beds were assigned to this purpose, but considerable deviations from it were found necessary in the execution, and among others, the fever wards were enlarged so as to contain 20 patients. On this scale the building was erected; and as the wards were now sufficiently large for general accommodation, Dr. Clark proposed the formation of a board of health, to carry rules of prevention into the houses of the poor, as the only further measure necessary to eradicate contagion. A committee was accordingly formed in January, 1802, '*in order to promote an institution in Newcastle for the cure and prevention of contagious fevers.*' An object of great magnitude, and only to be effected by a general co-operation.

"The committee entered on the business without delay; but when a proposal to admit contagious fevers into the fever wards annexed to the hospital was made by them to the weekly committee, it was referred by the latter to the physicians and surgeons of the charity, among whom, it then appeared, a differ-

rence of opinion prevailed as to its safety. It is to be lamented, that the opinions of all the medical officers of the charity had not been previously ascertained; and, that, in the original report, the fever wards are designated as destined to fever cases '*of accidental occurrence.*' Dr. Clark informs us that he relied on his views being understood by the governors, and by his colleagues, from the extent of the fever wards; and it cannot be denied, that it would have been ridiculous to provide 12, and still more to prepare 20 beds, for fevers, if they were to be limited to cases of fever originating within an hospital which can only contain 90 patients. The words '*accidental occurrence*' were introduced (as he states) to prevent the agitation of the question of contagion, which, from the want of proper information, had in several places occasioned much alarm on the proposal of similar improvements; and accordingly, at the first reading of the report, he explained to the committee his reason for using those words. His intentions appear, however, to have been misunderstood; and as soon as the reference of the question to the physicians and surgeons had disclosed their full extent, an opposition to the measure was commenced by some of those gentlemen, and especially by one of much influence, and deservedly high professional reputation. The controversy to which this opposition gave rise, has been preserved by Dr. Clark in his COLLECTION OF PAPERS. In his own papers, the arguments in favour of the limited action of contagion, and the means of preventing the progress of contagious diseases, are stated with great force and perspicuity; and he has supported them by a large

and more valuable mass of evidence on the subject, than is any where to be found in the annals of medicine. As he was aware that the majority of the governors were unacquainted with the nature of the question, he also collected, with great labour, the sentiments of most of the leading medical characters of Great Britain, supposing that the weight of authority would influence the issue of the question. It happened otherwise; his plan, though supported by the unanimous approbation of his very numerous and most respectable professional correspondents, was rejected by a great majority of governors, at a general meeting, held June 24th, 1802.

“The increasing violence of Dr. Clark’s complaints (to which the great additional fatigue from his extensive correspondence on the subject of contagion certainly contributed,) now obliged him to consent to a temporary suspension of practice; and as he had, in the preceding year, under somewhat similar symptoms, derived essential advantage from the Buxton waters, he determined to try them again. He accordingly set out for Buxton in the following month. The short period of three weeks, to which he restricted his absence, was certainly inadequate to the removal, or considerable alleviation, of symptoms, which, by long continuance, had become constitutional, and had arisen to so alarming a height. He had, however, no inducement to prolong his stay at Buxton. Neither the bath nor the internal use of the waters were of any use to him, and he therefore obeyed the frequent calls which were made on him for advice, and, after visiting Manchester and Leeds, returned to Newcastle. During this tour he

became personally acquainted with some distinguished medical practitioners, who were known to him from their works, and with whom he had corresponded on professional subjects. Among these, the justly celebrated Dr. James Currie met him, by appointment, at Buxton. Their respective writings and medical correspondence had inspired them with mutual esteem; they now became personally known to each other, and a great degree of confidence and intimacy obtained between them, which only terminated by Dr. Clark’s death. To the dreadful sufferings which led to that event, Dr. Currie was long a witness; and, while he lamented the fatal progress of a disease which no human aid could remove, admired the unshaken fortitude and placid resignation which his friend displayed, and which he was himself called upon, after so short an interval, to exert. A disease which, at the period of his first interview with Dr. Clark, had already made great progress, has since laid him also in the grave; and in a few months the medical profession has lost two of its brightest ornaments. At Manchester, Dr. Clark saw the truly venerable Dr. Percival, Dr. Ferriar, and Mr. White; and in discourse with them, those sufferings, which no medical aid could relieve, were, for the moment, suspended by the extraordinary interest which he always took in the judicious discussion of medical questions. The vigour which he displayed in these conversations, under so much bodily languor, and so harassing a train of complaints, was remarked with surprise by the friend who accompanied him.

“Besides these distinguished *medical* characters, Dr. Clark shared, at Buxton, the society of the late archdeacon,

archdeacon Paley, whom he had advised to go there for the benefit of the waters. That truly eminent man was then engaged in finishing his NATURAL THEOLOGY; but the completion of that great undertaking was frequently interrupted by severe accessions of a painful disorder, under which he had long laboured, and which has since proved fatal. Dr. Clark often expressed his admiration at the fortitude with which he bore the most painful attacks; and at the readiness, and even cheerfulness, with which, on the first respite from pain, he resumed his literary labours. When it is considered that the 26th chapter of his work was written under these circumstances, what he has said of the ALLEVIATIONS OF PAIN acquires additional weight. It is not a philosopher in the full enjoyment of health, who talks lightly of an evil which he may suppose at a distance. When Dr. Paley speaks of the power which pain has *'of shedding a satisfaction over intervals of ease, which few enjoyments exceed;'* and assures us, *'that a man resting from severe pain, is, for the time, in possession of feelings which undisturbed health cannot impart,'* the sentiment flowed from his own feelings. He was himself that man: and it is consolatory, amidst the numerous diseases to which the human frame is liable, to find how compatible they are with a certain degree of comfort, and even enjoyment. Something may indeed be attributed, in Dr. Paley, to a vigour of intellect, which is allotted to very few; but it cannot be doubted, that resignation in suffering is less the gift of great intellectual powers, than of well-regulated religious and moral sentiments.

“ From the enjoyment of society

so well suited to his disposition and pursuits, he was called by his professional duties; and it is to be lamented that with them he resumed his plan for annexing general fever wards to the Newcastle Infirmary. I have before mentioned how much importance he attached to it; and he moreover felt himself bound to his medical correspondents, to neglect no means of carrying a measure, which, at his request, they had exerted themselves to support. Such were the motives which induced him to recommend an application to the bishop of Durham, as grand visitor of the charity, to appoint a general meeting to take into consideration the propriety of the vote of the 24th of June. A requisition, very numerous and respectably signed, was accordingly transmitted to his lordship, who, in compliance with it, directed a general meeting to be held on the 12th of October. At that meeting, a much more numerous attendance of governors took place, than had ever been known; but as the plan for admitting contagious diseases into the fever wards had excited very great alarm, it was not thought for the interest of the charity to press the question. A compromise therefore took place, by which it was agreed, that if a separate fever house, approved by the grand visitor, were not ready by the 31st of October, 1803, he should be empowered to open the fever wards of the hospital for the general reception of patients. Though the plans which Dr. Clark had so earnestly recommended were thus laid aside, he had yet the pleasure to accomplish, in another way, the chief objects which he had in view. By the addition to the building, which he projected and executed, the Infirmary has become adequate

to the purposes of that benevolent institution; and a fever house having been established, it is hoped that it will lead to the appointment of a board of health, and to the adoption of those regulations by which the town of Newcastle, and its populous neighbourhood, may be rescued from the baneful effects of contagion.

"From this time Dr. Clark's health gradually declined. His constitutional stomach complaints became more violent, and the irregular action of the heart which accompanied, and was certainly aggravated if not produced by them, gained proportionable strength. The general languor and irritability of the habit were also greatly increased, and the few hours he allotted to rest were passed in watchfulness or broken and disturbed slumbers. Those who have suffered from similar complaints, will know how to estimate the zeal and vigour of mind which enabled him, under their pressure, to pursue his professional duties with undiminished assiduity. These exertions, and the resistance his constitution (in many respects a strong one) made to his complaints, concealed their progress in a great degree; and his friends and the public were flattering themselves that his most valuable life might be prolonged for many years, when, in the last week of October, 1804, he was first attacked by that disease which was destined to close it. Without apparent cause, he was seized with violent pain of the stomach and bowels, attended by a total interruption of the functions of the latter, and by severe nausea. The means which he employed, however, soon removed these symptoms, and he continued free from them, under the use of very mild remedies, for near three weeks after.

On the 13th of November, he had a second and much more severe attack. The violence of the symptoms gave rise to suspicions of inflammation, and excited the most serious apprehensions for his immediate safety. They were again after a few days removed, but not till the most powerful remedies had been employed. Amidst the alarm which this very severe attack awakened in the minds of his medical friends, they observed, with still greater apprehension, both in the mode of its accession and in the symptoms which marked its progress, many strong indications of organic lesion in the stomach, or in some portion of the alimentary canal. The melancholy prospect this opened, of severe and protracted suffering, could not be hidden from Dr. Clark. Even before the attack in October, he had seen reason to suspect the existence of some organic affection in the organs connected with digestion. These suspicions were greatly increased by that attack, and in the course of the second were confirmed to a degree which never after yielded to any steady hope of recovery. He expressed this opinion of his case with firmness and composure; argued, with perfect possession of mind, on the probable origin of its symptoms, on the inadequacy of any means the art of medicine furnishes to their removal, and on the protracted sufferings to which he was probably reserved. To the reasons his medical advisers adduced to remove or weaken this conviction, and which the obscurity that hung over his case in some points furnished them with, he answered with great force and precision. It was not the language of despondency. He admitted that the doubts they suggested had some weight;

weight; but, balancing the difficulties of the different conclusions with a strength of judgment which rose superior to hope and fear, he formed his inference with as much correctness as if he had been called to decide on the case of a stranger.

“It is fortunate for those who are doomed to sink under lingering disorders, when they are ignorant of their nature, and of the sufferings which await them. The present are not aggravated by the anticipation of future evils, and the fatal term to which the disease is tending, opens, often slowly and by almost imperceptible gradations, upon them. To see the inevitable yet slow approach of death; to be aware that the path to it will be marked by excessive pain; nay, to be able, from a knowledge of the nature of the disease, to foresee, in a great measure, the peculiar nature of the sufferings which it is likely to produce in its course, is indeed a trying situation. This trial it was Dr. Clark’s fate to experience, from this period to that of his death; and the resignation and fortitude he displayed under it, were proofs of no ordinary mind.

“Though the obstruction which had threatened his life was overcome, there was nothing like a return of health. The functions of the important organs, which had been the seat of disease, were never duly restored; and even the short interval he was allowed from violent symptoms was passed in constant uneasiness. Not only the appetite for food wholly abandoned him, but he felt, in general, an absolute loathing of it; and, for much the greater part of the day, was harassed by a sensation always bordering upon, and often amounting to, real nausea;—the morbid irritability of his nervous system

was also much increased, and his nights were sleepless. Under the accumulated weight of these complaints, he returned to his professional avocations. His medical advisers thought it best to consent to this in a limited degree. It was found almost impossible for him to refuse complying with the urgent applications for advice, while he went out for the advantage of exercise, and absolute confinement was found very injurious to him. He gave also abundant proof that his mind had lost nothing of its vigour, and could go through the necessary exertions without fatigue, while he was apt to sink into dejection when perfectly inactive. Dr. Clark always expressed his conviction that this permission was beneficial; and though it may not be wholly safe to draw an inference from his opinion, attached as he was to a life of utility and action, yet certainly every appearance supported it. It is often a question of some difficulty, in the management of chronic diseases, to determine on the degree of mental and bodily exertion which should be allowed. The previous habits and temper of mind must be consulted in forming the conclusion, as well as the nature of the disease and constitution; and when these are duly considered, many more restrictions to the rule of ease and quiet will be found advisable than are perhaps generally admitted. But though moderate exertions might not only be innocent, but even salutary, there could be no doubt of the pernicious effects of unseasonable hours and fatigue; yet how is a physician to limit his attendance when he engages in practice? To no practitioner would it be an easy task: to Dr. Clark, who, from professional zeal and benevolence, had always

sacrificed his personal ease and comfort to the welfare of those who consulted him, it was perhaps impossible.

“The respite, during which he engaged once more in business, did not last many weeks; the diseased organs were evidently unequal to their offices; and, even under apparently considerable action of the remedies employed, his bowels allowed a gradual accumulation. Total obstruction again ensued; the same harassing train of symptoms returned; and though immediate danger was once more removed, the attack left him with reduced strength, and with additional evidence of fixed local affection. Similar accessions became more frequent during the month of December, while the troublesome symptoms, which continued during the intervals, gained strength, and his increasing debility and waste of substance pointed out at once the dangerous nature of his disease, and the inadequacy of the remedies employed to remove it. Unfortunately those medicines were, not only in the opinions of his medical friends who attended him at Newcastle, but in those of other most eminent physicians who were consulted by him, the most powerful and best adapted to his case. In this urgent crisis they unanimously recommended the use of Cheltenham, and afterwards of Bath, waters; and as he felt that the trial should not be delayed, he set out for Cheltenham on the 22d of January, 1805.

“From the waters of Cheltenham he experienced no benefit; and therefore, as a last resource, about the close of February, quitted that place for Bath. While he remained at Cheltenham, he suffered repeated attacks; during the last of

which, for the first time, the nature of what was rejected by vomiting afforded incontrovertible evidence of the inverted action of the stomach being communicated to a considerable portion of the bowels; a symptom from which, Dr. Clark observed, he had only known one or two miraculous cases of recovery.

“The bad accounts which Dr. Clark had transmitted to the writer of this narrative from Cheltenham, had prepared him for an unfavourable change in his appearance, and he accordingly found him much weakened and reduced in substance; but, except in moments of excruciating pain, or of sickness more intolerable than pain, his mind continued calm and unshaken. He evidently entertained no hopes of the removal of his complaints, or even of considerable alleviation to them from the Bath waters; but he seemed to feel satisfaction in proving his respect for the opinions of his medical friends, by a punctual compliance with their advice. At Bath he was attended by Drs. Haygarth and Falconer, who had long been his correspondents, and by his friend Dr. James Currie, whom increasing ill health had compelled to quit his situation at Liverpool for a less laborious practice. Under these distinguished physicians, his friends had at least the consolation to feel that no assistance was wanting which medical ability and knowledge could supply.

“For some time the warm bath, and the internal use of Bath water, seemed of service. His nights were rather better, and he was able to take more nourishment. He had also a respite from an attack of nearly double the length of any which he had enjoyed from the two preceding months. Still, however,

not

not a day passed without considerable and continued nausea, and frequent pain. His loathing of food, in some degree, continued: he rarely slept for more than half an hour together, and his days were passed in languor, and often in an intolerable state of nervous irritation. Under these unfavourable appearances, though he rather improved in looks and strength, neither Dr. Clark nor his medical friends could be sanguine in their hopes that his disease was yielding, or that they could prevent a return of obstruction. Their apprehensions were but too soon realized;—symptoms of gradual accumulation in the bowels again returned: and notwithstanding every effort was made to avert the evil, complete obstruction took place, and brought with it all the dreadful train of sufferings which he had so often undergone. No previous attack had been so severe: for several days it resisted the most powerful remedies; and he at one time seemed sinking under the violence of the symptoms, and the strong action of the medicines employed to remove them. In this state he sent for his second son, then at Cambridge; the eldest was at too great a distance, to allow a reasonable hope of his arrival before his father's dissolution.

“The relief which Dr. Clark at this time experienced, turned out more considerable than he or his medical friends had dared to expect; nor can it be denied that a faint degree of hope was raised in their breasts. The effect of the remedies by which the action of the bowels was promoted, proved more favourable than on any former occasion: he began to take more food, and to sleep a little better; in short, though he had many di-

stressing feelings, which at once destroyed his comfort and afforded very strong presumption of the unsubdued state of his disease, he certainly had, during this last period, more flattering symptoms than in any former interval. But the close of his suffering was at hand. On the 4th of April he was seized with bilious vomiting, attended by great general irritation of the system, and intolerable languor. These symptoms continued through a great part of the night, but were relieved before morning, and he passed the two following days much in his usual state. On the 7th he had a similar attack, and it became apparent that the disordered state of his stomach was connected with, and in all probability dependent on, accumulation in the bowels. This state was the more alarming, because no means had been neglected to obviate its recurrence. The remedies used to remove it, were not more effectual than those employed for prevention. On the evening of the 11th, symptoms of peritoneal inflammation manifested themselves; and though partial relief was repeatedly obtained, the inflammation ran its course uninterrupted, and terminated on the 19th in mortification. Under this, and absolute inanition from want of nourishment, he sunk in the evening of that day. It is not my wish to dwell on the sufferings which marked this last period of his life. Perhaps no state of disease to which the frame is liable, can produce any more difficult to endure. The most excruciating pain was accompanied by, or alternated with, that harassing sickness which accompanies inflammation of the intestines. Opiates, which for a time allayed the symptoms, at length lost their effect, and

and his nights became almost entirely sleepless. It is surprising that, after so protracted and severe an illness, his constitution should have struggled so long with these accumulated evils; and with so small a portion of food, that it seemed insufficient to support life, even if no morbid action had been present to undermine it. It would not be doing justice to Dr. Clark's memory merely to say, that he bore the trial with fortitude; in truth, he exhibited to the last the leading features of his character—warm attachment to his friends and relatives, general benevolence, and anxiety for the improvement of his profession. He expressed, with unfeigned feeling, his regret that Mrs. Clark and their second son should have the pain of witnessing his sufferings; and studied, by all possible means, (though they were generally defeated by their affectionate assiduity,) to remove them from the painful scene at the most trying moments. Within four days of his death, while labouring under the fatal symptoms which indicated its immediate approach, he inquired into the case of one of his friends with anxious solicitude; examined his complaints with apparently as much interest, and as uninterrupted attention, as if he had himself been at ease and well; and gave his opinion and directions with his accustomed clearness and precision. His attachment to his profession was conspicuous through the whole of his illness. The introduction of a medical topic of importance, had always the effect of calling, for the time, his thoughts from his own situation; nor were the interest and animation they excited, more remarkable than his perfect recollection, unimpaired judgment, and clear discrimination.

“Dr. Clark's remains were, at his own request, deposited, on the 24th of April, in the church-yard of Weston, near Bath; near the grave of his friend, the late Mr. Bigge, of Benton House, near Newcastle.

“Dr. Clark was twice married. By his first wife, who was a widow, he had two children, both of which died in early infancy. In 1783 he married miss Susan Heath, of Newcastle; by whom he had a daughter and eight sons; of whom four and the daughter have with her survived to deplore his loss.

“Though it is chiefly as a professional man that I wish to offer Dr. Clark to the notice of the society, I cannot refrain from touching slightly on his great respectability in private life. We there find him an affectionate husband and father, a warm and steady friend, an indulgent master, a man of unbounded benevolence, and equally inaccessible to suspicion and incapable of practising deceit. This extraordinary simplicity of character is always interesting; and when united with great intellectual powers becomes peculiarly attractive. Dr. Clark was rather hasty in his temper; a fault which is so often connected with great and generous qualities, that it generally meets with too much indulgence in society; nay, is often absurdly considered as an indication of those virtues with which it is not unfrequently united. He was a firm believer in Christianity, and had a pleasure in remarking the effect which a reliance on its truths, and the practice of its duties, have in enabling men to bear the evils of life with resignation, and to meet death with firmness.”

ANECDOTES OF GEORGE MORLAND.

[FROM MR. HASSELL'S MEMOIRS OF HIS LIFE.]

“**A**T the time Morland resided at Paddington, he may be said to have been at the very summit of his merit, and also of his extravagances. He kept at this time no less than eight saddle-horses at livery, at the sign of the White Lion, opposite to his house, and was absurd enough to wish to be considered as a horse-dealer, but unfortunately he did not know *quid humeri ferrent, quid non*,—wherein his real strength lay.—Frequently, horses for which to-day he would give a purse of thirty or forty guineas, he would sell on the day following for half that sum, or perhaps for less; but as the honest fraternity of horse-dealers knew their man, and would take his note at two months, he could the more easily indulge this propensity, and appear for a short time in cash, until pay-day came, when lo! a picture was produced as a *douceur* for a renewal of the notes. Such was the practice until he had accumulated debts to an enormous amount, and brought himself to the brink of that fatal precipice from which he fell

‘Never to hope again.’

“This was one source of calamity which neither his industry, for which he was remarkable, nor his talents, which were rare and transcendent, were by any means adequate to counterpoise. His wine-merchant, too, who was a gentleman in the discounting line, would sometimes obtain a picture worth fifty pounds for the renewal of a bill. Can it then be wondered at, when thus beset by picture-dealers, horse-dealers, wine-merchants, at-

torneys, and a whole string of *et ceteras*, that he should at length have sunk under such accumulated burthens of misery and mischief? This was in reality the fact; he heaped folly upon folly with such dire rapidity, that a fortune of ten thousand pounds per annum would have proved insufficient for the support of his waste and prodigality.

“It has been already observed, that no man was more accessible to flattery than Morland, and the more gross and strong the mode wherein it was served up, the more highly was it relished. An ostler, or post-boy, applauding his observations, was sure to be touched in the palm with half-a-crown, or perhaps to receive a pair of leather breeches, little the worse for wear: his acquaintances of this cast were so numerous, that there was scarcely a driver on the north road, within fifty miles of London, that was not known to him; nor was there a blood-horse of any note, whose pedigree and performances he could not relate with astonishing facility.

“There was an inn at Highgate, a favorite resort of his, where these princes and sovereign judges of the whip, generally stopped upon their return to the country to refresh themselves and their horses. Here our artist used regularly to take his stand, and here, indeed, he was completely at home; receiving the compliments of every one that offered them, in return for which he always, although very imprudently, considered it as his duty to pay the reckoning.

“Frequently, with a pipe in his mouth, he would parade before the door

door of the house, and hail the carriages as they passed in succession before him ; and from being so well known, he was generally greeted in return, by a familiar salute from the postillion. The consequence he attached to this species of homage, as an illustration of his great merit, in so very active a scene, is almost beyond belief.

“ Among these qualifications, which determine the justness of this artist’s character, his knowledge of the horse has been admired as clear and unclouded ; and, in truth, it constituted one of his favorite studies. Calling upon the writer hereof one morning, Mr. Stubbs’s work upon the anatomy of this animal accidentally caught his eye, and so strongly riveted his attention, that he was induced to request the loan of it ; which was readily granted. This work he investigated very minutely, and pronounced it to be the best production he had ever seen upon the subject.

“ An objection has been taken to Morland, that he could not draw a blood-horse with fire and accuracy. Compared with Gilpin or Stubbs, the charge may possibly be true, for the latter of these gentlemen was the very god of Morland’s idolatry ; but those who assert that he could not display the correct form of the race-horse, or the hunter, must have been ignorant of the pictures which he adorned with those beautiful figures, viz. the *First of September Morning*, and the *few Hunting pieces*, engraved by *Bell*. The energy and spirit emanating from the eye of the horse, corresponding to the fire of his passion, in the first of these pieces, is, perhaps, as lively a touch, and in as fine a tone of coloring, as any pencil has ever exhibited.

“ Before Morland sought the pig-

stye, he was seldom out of *the stable* ; as he degraded himself in life, the efforts of his pencil declined in the same proportion ; and after his faculties had become impaired, which was some time antecedent to his death, his pictures became washy, meagre, and unfinished ; indeed, a disorder in his hands had rendered him incapable of painting, at least for three years before his death. In this dilemma he had recourse to the chalk and crayon style of drawing, in which he proved as successful as at any former period of his life.

“ It will be thought a little singular, that whilst his drawings were so meritorious, and of which in this work we have given specimens, his pictures should fall so far short of his original excellence : such is, nevertheless, the undoubted fact.

“ Upon his return from Leicestershire, he found his picture and horse-dealing friends very solicitous to renew their visits : this, however, he would not encourage, but from that moment studiously avoided all society, and with only a single crony to hawk his pictures about the town, was invisible for months together, even to those truly sincere friends who lamented his unpardonable mismanagement, and would have zealously promoted his welfare.

“ So strongly was the mind of this ill-fated artist impressed with the idea that he should come to inhabit a gaol before his dissolution, that he actually visited the King’s Bench prison *incog.*, to ascertain what kind of a *gusto* he might have for confinement ; yet, so great was his dread of the foreseen reality, that he declared nothing short of absolute necessity should ever compel him to yield himself up to the myrmidons of the law.

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“It was now that he began to feel the ill effects of having prematurely involved himself in debt; if he was seen to walk the streets, he was sure to be dogged, or at least he thought himself dogged by some lurking creditor, before he could reach his habitation, where, although he made use of every precaution, he was nevertheless frequently discovered; but, whenever he surmised this to be the case, he would suddenly decamp without beat of drum, and in a few days after, his trusty dependents, or HANGERS ON, would be dispatched to fetch away his implements. Thus incessantly harassed by the apprehension of being lodged in a prison, he thought it best to run the gauntlet through the four counties adjacent to the metropolis.

“Amongst the particular excellencies of Morland in the favorite branches of his professional pursuit, we should not forget to enumerate his peculiar, and very nice discrimination of the female form in the fashions of the time in which he lived, so as to give precisely what was proper, without any outrage to nature, or rendering his objects uncouth, in forming comparisons of them with the fashions of other times. Any prejudice in favor of a particular fashion was by him disdained; and what may seem paradoxical, although he dressed his females in the habit of the day, most of them are, nevertheless, just such as they will be seen and admired in a century hence.

“An early study of the works of sir Joshua had taught him the art of avoiding the *superfluous*, and that in order to portray an elegant figure upon the canvass, it was absolutely necessary to hit off a free, easy, and unconstrained air.

“Modern habits and costume may

suit the dauber of an hour, but a superior ambition should animate the painter, who, like Zeuxis, aspires to paint always for immortality. Such an artist must make his subjects a species of *non-descript*, by rendering them *à-la-mode*, but at the same time contrive them so that they should never be altogether out of fashion.

“It is with the attitude and motion of an elegant woman, as it is with the fleeting images of fancy, her turn and contour must be caught instantly by the phrensy-rolling eye of the painter’s imagination, or, like the airy vision, it vanishes to rise no more.

“We have before stated that Morland at his outset in life, and whilst under the instructions of his father, accompanied the old gentleman on a trip to Margate, and that he started there as a portrait-painter, although many of his pieces remained unfinished. In this line, however, he was successful in a certain degree, although the portraits which the writer has seen are not highly to be commended, at least, if that flattery which characterizes the pencil of modern artists, is to be infallibly considered as a criterion of excellence.

“We do not by any means, here, wish to insinuate that artists of the present day compromise their reputation by infusing the resemblance of knowledge or merit into the subjects they delineate; on the contrary, we are inclined to think, that, without proper attention to some little degree of complaisance in this respect, a portrait-painter of the present day must feel the bitter pangs of proud neglect.

“Morland had become from habit so very strict a copier of nature, that even if the depredations of disease had distorted the features of the

the person who sat to him, there is every reason to believe that he would have made a merit of copying a defect, if he could but have produced a correct likeness; for it was impossible for him to resist the impulse that might seize him at the moment, as frequently with the gravest face he has been seen to paint the most ludicrous subject. Of his severity in this particular some notice is taken in another part of this work; we allude here to his satirical touches upon the infamous productions of sign-daubers: let it only be remembered, that when an opportunity offered of producing a sign to his cottage inn, it was sure to be the face of some of his acquaintance, when he would convert the visage of his most intimate friend into that of a dog, a cat, a lion, or any other animal that best suited his whim.

“Morland, from his natural predilection for rural scenery, was neither calculated for, nor did he in any degree court, this department of the art. What he performed was in his younger days, and obtruded upon him by the necessities of his father. Sometimes, indeed, he would spontaneously begin a portrait, but this was more to evince his ability, than from his inclination to gratify the party he pourtrayed. His best portraits were very much in the style of Rembrandt, and it is worthy of note, that he fell into the same error with that celebrated artist—of painting his subjects older than they were.

“A picture of Mr. John Baynes, which Morland painted, may be said more to resemble Rembrandt’s manner than even his own. In this piece he has shown a familiar knowledge of that master’s practice; the coloring and touching are similar,

and we find as great a body of materials as were used in general by Rembrandt.

“The portrait of Mr. Baynes is in appearance considerably older than that gentleman, and the *tout ensemble* is most certainly deficient in what a portrait ought to be; still as a painting it has infinite merit. Portrait-painting, however, it must be candidly acknowledged, was not *his forte*, and he relinquished it in time to make himself a painter of the scenery of his own country, and to qualify himself for that department in which he blazed forth, in the sequel, with unrivalled splendor.

“Rural scenery, although a vast art, yet, it must be allowed, has its limits; and however excursive the soaring fancy of man may be, he must, in order to please, be accurate in his delineations and imitations as a painter.

“In copying nature we are sometimes led to copy a defect, and indeed it is no very easy task to cull all that may please the eye, and avoid every thing formal or distorted. It is by sketching resemblances of nature in the field, and by comparing them with those of the painter’s representations, that we shall be enabled to determine the proper choice. The artist from habit may ascertain what will please, but nature all prolific, has so many little, and comparatively uninteresting parts, that a well-instructed taste is absolutely necessary to make the selection.

“Morland, at his very outset, shewed a precocity of judgment; he knew that general ideas were more pleasing than local or confined subjects, and this principle he made his guide, uniting to rural scenery all the characteristic costume and excellencies of the rustic.

“ In delineating the portraits of ‘ the human face divine,’ his sagacity prevented him from copying the deformities of nature ; it was no particular landscape that could afford him entire satisfaction ; a voluptuary in his art, he retained only the richest part of what he saw : having sipped the sweets of the flower that was before him, his imagination, ever wild, instantly winged its flight, and sought a fresh repast.

“ From the scenery, which he could so charmingly represent in his tableaux, an apparent presumption arises, that his mind was in a continual state of serenity ; his rural subjects possess a repose, a tranquillity scarcely ever exhibited in the works of any other English painter. Fond of partial effects, or the accidents of nature, our countrymen appear anxious only to produce what is termed *effect*, not seldom giving a drawing with a patch of light in the centre of a *dark spot*. This ridiculous affectation, since the introduction of the new style adopted by Mr. Turner, has risen to such a height, as to disregard the distinct delineation of every particular object, so that the mind is left to find out, whether such an object is intended for a castle, a rock, or a mill-stone.

“ A great writer of antiquity, Longinus, and a more modern author, upon the sublime and beautiful, have both observed, that obscurity constitutes an essential character of the sublime. Waving the discussion of this point, the affectation of many modern artists certainly possesses sublimity, but unfortunately this sublimity, or species of ‘ darkness visible,’ has fairly absorbed all the beauty which we expect to find in this department of the art. But, to resume our subject, clouds,

according to the new method, are made to fall with such cumbrous weight upon the hills, as might induce us to believe, that our little island was in the act of being incorporated with the sky ; and as if it were fully determined to introduce a new mythology, woods are distinguished by a lump of color, without form, whilst, from its sudden lustre and forked appearance, the representation of a river can be compared to nothing but the zig-zag revolutions of a flash of lightning !

“ Murky effects like these are beneath the painter of distinguished merit ; this is not the grand style, if we may be permitted to apply this term to landscape-painting, but a vile, sombrous, and affected manner, void of acute discrimination.

“ We have already remarked how much the mind of Morland was at variance with his productions ; it remains now to consider how very different the character of his mind, as exemplified in his paintings, appears, when compared with that of other artists in the same department. The mind of Morland, estranged from all that was laudable, preyed only upon all that was trifling, whilst his productions were always guided by reason, and clearly beamed forth the intellect of the man, as far as it related to the art which he professed.

“ From the habits which Morland had contracted, it may not, perhaps, be digressing from the subject, to shew what it was that created so wide a difference between the man and his works ; like to that which appears in the productions of Salvator Rosa ; the exuberances of whose pencil were only equalled by his manners ; and, indeed, they had so great an affinity, that the
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mind of such a painter might be denominated that of an outlaw.

“Morland, as we have already seen, was from his infancy initiated in the arts, and by acquiring a refined taste when young, although depraved in morals and manners himself, as he advanced in life, he was not able to vitiate the perfections that are so much extolled in his works: hence we may infer the important consequences which attend an early direction of the studies of youth.

“Salvator Rosa, savage and romantic from the earliest dawn of his reason, was in the character of his pictorial parts the very prototype of our artist: extravagant in all he attempted, he made the art itself subservient to the subject he represented.

“Enthusiastic, but not dignified, all his productions bore a strong resemblance to the character of the man. An uncultivated wild was his forte; his figures, which were generally banditti, were adapted to the country in which they were placed; even his most serious subjects, his hermits and his saints, were little better than assassins in disguise; and what strongly proves that his studies were not commenced at such an early age as to ensure perfection in his art, his method of *handling* also bears the same irregular character as his figures; yet, a lofty, capacious genius may be traced through all his works. We may fitly exclaim, *Ex pede Herculem!* and, except in Zuccerelli and Marco Ricci, perhaps there was never any thing like the full majesty of Salvator’s handling—grand, but unadorned.

“Morland, from early tuition, was taught to shun what, from his most ardent natural character, he would otherwise have fallen into,—those

strong, glaring errors, which are constantly to be seen in the works of Salvator Rosa.

“Rosa of Tivoli, who painted from the country in which he lived, was likewise much in the style of Morland. Cattle was his forte; but aiming in general at powerful effect, and endeavouring to imitate the worst parts of Jacimo Basan, he greatly tarnished the beauties of his pencilling, and his perfections lie buried and obscured under masses of shadow.

“There are several other masters who have traced the same path which Morland chose, and from their admirable designs he profited much;—for brilliancy and clearness of coloring he appears to have followed Cuyp;—for truth and accuracy of delineation, Paul Potter; for grouping and placidity of subject, Bergham.

“In the repose visible in the pictures of Morland, the last of these masters is significantly traced, yet there does not appear Bergham’s knowledge in the painting of cows;—every animal, this one excepted, Morland had diligently studied: and why he should neglect this picturesque object, is beyond the reach of our conjecture: perhaps, if we have a Bergham in England, he is to be found in the curious and accurate abilities of Mr. Ibbetson.

“A continued series of embarrassments from the year 1793, to the hour that Morland was secured within the rules of the King’s Bench, obliged him to make sudden and frequent excursions into the country; his greatest elongation from the metropolis was, we believe, to the city of York. It is much, however, to be regretted that circumstances had not driven him to the westward, where lake scenery,

stenery, and its picturesque appendages, would have given a new scope to his laborious and skilful pencil. His natural predilection for coast and water views when in the Isle of Wight bears us out in this conjecture, and justifies the reasons of our regret.

“Morland’s frequent visits at the back of that island made him known to every publican and fisherman that resided in these parts. There was in particular a small public-house at Fresh Water Gate, called the Cabin, which may be termed his favorite resort; near that spot he made innumerable sketches, and indeed through all the tract extending from thence to *Black Gang Chine, Undercliffe, Steephill, Bonchurch*, and as far as *Shanklin*.

“Accident once brought Morland and the writer hereof together at the latter village, when the artist drew from his pocket a sketch-book, filled with the most exquisite treasures.

“The following anecdote may be inserted, perhaps not improperly, in this place.—A mutual friend, at whose house Morland resided when in the Isle of Wight, having set out on a journey to London, left an order, upon his departure, with his acquaintance at Cowes, to give Morland his own price for such drawings or pictures as he should think proper to send. The gentleman intrusted with this commission, although highly respectable both in his moral and professional character, had, nevertheless, a very incompetent knowledge of, and as little true relish for, the fine arts.

“Morland’s pictures, however, were always sent in with an accompanying solicitation for cash, in proportion, or according to the nature of the subject; these demands were regularly complied
1806.

with, until, at length, a small but highly-finished drawing was transmitted, with a demand of cash as usual, in the ratio of its merit. Struck with the apparent disparity between the *size* of the drawing, and the *sum* demanded, which seemed out of all proportion, the conscientious agent positively refused to advance a shilling upon it, until he had transmitted the drawing to his friend, who was then in London. This was accordingly done, and instructions were immediately sent back to take the drawing, and as many others as the artist might offer at the same price. Upon the receipt of this liberal and explicit order, the agent at Cowes hastened to find out Morland, and instantly paid the money, but not without observing, that he thought his friend must be deranged in his intellects.

“At the present period, however, there is not a single sketch in that collection, but what would produce three times its original cost. So much for the want of a just and true discrimination as to the nature, value, and merits of the fine arts!

“During Morland’s stay at Yarmouth, he and his fellow-travellers were apprehended as spies, when the former, in his vindication, produced several drawings which he had just finished at Cowes; but these the lieutenants ingeniously decyphered, as confirmations of their guilt, and our travellers were escorted by a strong body of soldiers and constables to Newport; where being brought, and separately examined before the bench of justices, they were at length discharged, after a strict injunction to paint and draw no more during their abode in that island.

“Upon his return to London, 1799, Morland took lodgings at
E Vauxhall,

Vauxhall, and painted several pictures of ships in distress, wrecks, and other subjects, apparently from scenes off the Isle of Wight, many of which he treated in his usual masterly manner; but, notwithstanding all the labor he lavished upon them, few will ever be deemed so pleasing as those executed in his more tranquil style. His land storms are, nevertheless, pregnant with spirit, with fine partial effect, and accidents of a more familiar nature.

“However the eye may be pleased with his other pieces, yet they do not excite those sensations of horror which his sea tempests never fail to present to the mind; still, his coast scenery and light breezes may be considered his best pictures. Conformity to truth and beauty, grounded upon the immutable laws of Nature, constitutes the grand predominating feature of his best works, and from a strict adherence to this principle he pleased every class of individuals.

“Pictures adapted to please only one class of persons, frequently owe their favorable reception to accident, or to some local circumstance; but where ideas apparently contrasted, yet still natural, can be combined upon the easel, and assimilated to the capacity of every observer, this effect certainly and decisively demonstrates the consummate skill of the artist.

“Morland possessed abilities sufficient to reconcile contradictions—his pictures instantaneously struck, and equally delighted the correct eye of the connoisseur, as well as of the uninformed spectator. His superior genius, apparent in his grander compositions, may be resembled to the Moon,

‘Stooping from her meridian heaven,
Downward to the waves.’

“The mutability of human affairs brings us now to the painful task of following Morland into the hands of a bailiff, and through the troubles and mortifications of a prison, to which his depravity, still more wretched, had brought him! Yet, even thus fallen, and wallowing in the very sty of filth and debauchery, his talents still preserved him some friends, whose recommendation and security procured him the rules of the Bench. This ill-fated artist seemed to have possessed two minds—one, the animated soul of genius, by which he soared in his profession—and the other, that debased and grovelling propensity, which condemned him to the very abyss of dissipation. Thus may he be justly compared to the beautiful flower, which contains within itself the two opposite powers of healing and charming the senses, and that of blasting and destroying life!

‘Within the infant rind of this small
flower,
Poison hath residence, and med’cine
power,
For this being smelt, with that sense
chearseach part,
Being tasted, slays all senses with the
heart.
Two such opposing pow’rs encamp
there still,
In man, as well as herbs—grace and
rude will.
And where the latter is predominant,
Full soon, the canker Death eats up
that plant.’

“Too truly, alas! was this verified, and too prominently illustrated in the case of the unfortunate Morland. Sunk, in this *barathrum*, or cavern of misery, he had the fullest latitude for indulging the influence of “rude will,” to its utmost extreme: here he could mingle with such companions as were best adapted to his wayward
fancy—

fancy—here, in his own way, he could reign, and here could revel. When the writer hereof beheld him thus surrounded by the very “lowest of the low,” in a place rendered by dissipation and indolence, more like a brothel-house than the residence of unfortunate genius, he has often been tempted to exclaim, in the language of the poet,

‘When I behold a genius *bright and base*,
Of tow’ring talents, but terrestrial aims,
Methinks I view her thrown from her
high sphere,
The glorious fragments of a soul immortal,
With rubbish mix’d, and glitt’ring in
the dust.’

And often has he turned his eye from the melancholy spectacle, with tears of tender pity—with sensations of disgust.

“His constant companion and favorite in this *Castle of Indolence*, was a personage who went under the familiar nick-name of “*My Dicky*,” (of whom he painted a most excellent portrait,) as he had a familiar nick-name for all whom he honored with the luxury of his levee festivities.

“Even here, in this miserable abode, that spirit of industry which ever distinguished him in his profession, was not extinguished, and his exertions were certainly not from compulsion, (at least it has been so asserted) for, by a single day’s attention, he could with ease have procured a week’s competent provision; the fact is, that amidst all his seeming contempt for it, and through all the various frolics and mischances of his life, he still loved and idolized the art.

“Whilst in this place, he painted several pictures for Mr. Jones, the marshal, which we believe are still in his possession; also several for Mr. Graham; a considerable number for dealers; and a still larger

number for private gentlemen. The late Mr. Spencer, of Bow-street, had a pretty large collection painted by Morland, during the time of his confinement. One of these was a straw-yard, very highly finished; and to give any degree of interest to such a subject, it was indispensably necessary, that very particular attention should be bestowed on every part of it. On one of the upper rails of the rack, on which a raven is placed, there appears written, in large characters,

“NO MORE STRAW-YARDS FOR ME.
“G. MORLAND.”

“This was, perhaps, one of the first symptoms of his slighting, or appearing to slight, the art, although it might merely express his distaste for one particular subject. In proportion, however, as his customers flocked round him, he neglected one essential part—the finishing; some who had purchased his works unfinished, procured some *second hand* to glaze up the fore-grounds, but this has chiefly lain among the picture-dealers, whose skill in supplying half-worn landscapes, with new skies, and in cracking and varnishing historical pictures to produce the appearance of antiquity, can only be rivalled by certain of the productions of the new school of landscape painting.

“Morland, whilst in confinement, retained still a strong tincture of the same vanity by which he had ever been distinguished, and which often placed him in awkward or ridiculous situations. Shutting his eyes upon his own absurdities, he thought the world would be equally complacent, for, although it was a fact of general notoriety, that he was confined within the rules of the King’s Bench, he would be

conceited enough, when upon a day-rule in term-time, to ride from house to house, in the country round London, where he would strenuously contradict the report of his imprisonment, and afterwards, with a celerity which he was famed for when on horseback, return to town and exhibit himself at every wretched low pot-house he had formerly resorted to.

“Unluckily, upon some of these occasions, *Little Flannegan*, habited as his servant, has been known to betray his master, by putting in his claim to a share of the conversation, which he would usher in with—‘*Give me leave, Mr Morland—I remember ven I was an officer in the Fleet.*’ &c.

“Morland, when distressed, was not barren in expedients. Upon some occasions he might even be considered as witty. The writer remembers once, a brother artist coming in carelessly, the slovenliness of whose dress was an exact contrast with Morland’s, begged leave to sit down, saying he was ‘*a-hungry and a-tired*’—to which Morland instantly replied—‘*Very badly attired indeed!*’

“A whimsical story has been circulated respecting his readiness at finding out resources, and which wears every apparent mark of authenticity.

“Upon his departing from Deal, where he had been making sketches of the coast, he returned to town on foot, accompanied by his brother-in-law, Mr. Williams, the engraver. The extravagant humours of the preceding evening, distressing to relate, had rendered the exchequer pennyless. Morland felt a craving appetite for some refreshment, but the great difficulty was how to procure it. Observing a low-built house by the road-side,

over which was placed an animal intended for a bull, Morland, who was seldom at a loss for entering a public-house, soon introduced himself, and under pretence of enquiring his way, expressed his surprize to the landlord, that he did not renew his sign, which time, it seems, had nearly defaced. Boniface alledged his inability to get it repaired on account of the charge, at the same time observing, that it was good enough for his humble dwelling; but, upon Morland’s offering to paint him a new one for five shillings, he immediately acquiesced, and commissioned him to make a trial of his skill. Here, however, a new difficulty occurred: Morland was without utensils, which could not be procured at a smaller distance than Canterbury, to which place (not without some difficulty) the landlord was persuaded to send. In the mean time the travellers had bespoke a dinner, and had exhausted several pitchers of good ale, with at least a *quantum sufficit* of spirits, all which could only be paid for by painting the sign.

“The reckoning, however, before the bull was finished, instead of five shillings, the sum contracted for, had increased to *ten*, and the chagrined landlord reluctantly suffered the travellers to depart upon Morland’s explaining who he was, and promising to call and pay the landlord at a future day.

“About three years before his death, Morland received a severe stroke from the palsy, which so heavily shook his whole frame, both intellectual and corporeal, that sometimes whilst in the act of painting, he would fall back senseless into his chair—at other periods, he would sleep for hours together. His left hand, also, was so much inflamed

inflamed as to disable him from holding the implements of his profession.

“One consequence of this disorder was, that he found himself compelled to draw in pencil and in chalk, some of which he used to tint lightly. From hence the country has been enriched with drawings of a superior description, and in a style at once bold, original, and new.

“These may be even termed a school of arts to direct the liberal studies of young draughtsmen, as many of them have been engraved in chalk, which approximates the nearest to his own style, and which appears to be the best method of imparting to his works the spirit which they obviously require.

We come now to conclude this “strange, eventful history;” but first order obliges us to pursue the subject of this narration briefly to the moment of his death. The last insolvent act restored him to society; he still, however, continued at his former residence in St. George’s Fields, chiefly associating with the lowest myrmidons of legal drudgery, until a family disagreement caused him to separate from his wife, when he took up his resi-

dence with a sheriff’s officer in Rolls-buildings, for whom he afterwards painted several pictures, and in whose official capacity he once degraded himself so far as to become coadjutor.

“At length he was taken in execution by a Marshalsea-court writ, to the house of Mr. Attwell, Air-street, where having swallowed a large quantity of spirits, this unfortunately produced a fever, and speedily terminated his existence, we are sorry to add, in the very extreme of wretchedness, penury, and distress.

“Thus departed George Morland! that remarkable and excellent master of his art, whose professional life, contemplated from the brilliant side, will doubtless prove to his brethren of the palette, that however inspired by genius, without sedulous application, perfection must not be expected: and may the rising generation be instructed from his fate, that genius itself, however original, or all the high qualities found in a consummate artist, will never shield the possessor from misery, unless accompanied by that prudence, temperance, and integrity which can alone insure respect, esteem, and admiration!”

PARTICULARS of the EARLY LIFE of THOMAS DERMODY.

[From DR. HOULTON’S Letter to MR. RAYMOND, inserted in MR. RAYMOND’S LIFE of him.]

“IT was, to the best of my recollection, in the year 1786, that chance brought me acquainted with young Dermody. Happening, one day, to notice a little country-looking boy, meanly habited, and evidently not more than

ten years old, standing at an humble book-shop in Dublin, and reading Longinus in the original Greek text, I was not a little surprised at the occurrence. I entered into a conversation with him, and soon found him an adept in that lan-

guage. I asked him home to dine with me. He accepted the invitation: informing me that his name was Thomas Dermody; and that his father was a schoolmaster in the county of Clare; whom, from a particular cause, he had abruptly quitted, and begged his way to Dublin, where he had arrived only a short time since.

“During dinner, on whatever subject was started I found him intelligent. He conversed in such nervous language, with such a measured pronunciation, pertinency of remark, and justness of observation, that I could not but contemplate him as an infant philosopher, or as a little being composed entirely of mind. To my greater surprise, he informed me that he had been an usher in his father’s Latin and Greek school for the last two years, and had commenced that duty at eight years of age. ‘Then,’ exclaimed I, ‘you are doubtless conversant with most of the Latin and Greek authors that are generally read in those seminaries.’ He answered that he was; and that if I had any such in the house, he would attempt to convince me of it. I produced Horace and Homer, when he speedily proved that they were among his very intimate acquaintance. I remarked to him, that his application must have been immense. He modestly answered, that he was more ready to ascribe any proficiency he had attained to his father’s assiduity in instructing him; he having put him into the Latin Accidence at four years of age, and unremittingly made him pursue his learning (even amidst the drudgery of his ushership) from the above early period till the day he left him.—

I trust you will not, sir, think me too minute; since, in characters of extraordinary genius, every trait of their earliest emanations of mind generally becomes no less a matter of curiosity than of interest.

“I now took the opportunity to say to him, that as he appeared to be quite unsettled, I should deem it the greatest obligation if he would make my house his residence, till some better and more agreeable situation could be obtained for the prosecution of his studies. He accepted my offer with many expressions of gratitude: and said he would go to the place where he had slept for a night or two, to inform the people of my invitation; and return in the evening, and bring with him some manuscripts which he wished to submit to my inspection. In the mean time I ordered an apartment to be prepared for his accommodation, and waited with no small impatience the return of my wonderful little guest. He appeared at supper-time, and presented me with a bundle of papers, which he begged me to read at my leisure; and after some refreshment said, that as he was fatigued, he would take the liberty to retire to rest. I must confess, I was so anxious to inspect the manuscripts he had put into my hands, that I immediately ordered the servant to shew him to his room, and wished him a good night.

“And now, sir, not having the least presentiment that he was about to display a talent of natural genius, nearly as prominent as his qualifications in acquired learning, fancy to yourself my additional surprise, when I discovered, on opening this bundle of manuscripts, that they were poetical works by
this

this boy of ten years of age; consisting of a variety of translations and sonnets, with the head-piece to each 'By Thomas Dermody.' The translations I perceived to be detached portions from Virgil and Horace. The version was more distinguished for a closeness of translation, to express the strict sense of the respective authors, than for that freedom and those little graces in version, which the idiom of the English language would have admitted, and which I had not the least doubt that more mature years and practice would have effected in him. But it is impossible to describe the pleasure I received, when I began to peruse his sonnets; in which his mind was unshackled, and his natural genius at full liberty to take its youthful flights into the region of Poesy. A justness of expression and sentiment, an appropriate imagery (particularly in three or four pastoral pieces), an ease and sweetness of versification, together with the strictest accuracy of rhymes, pervaded the whole of the productions that were the offspring of his own brain.

"At breakfast next morning he asked me if I had done him the favour to inspect any of his manuscripts. 'Every one of them,' said I, 'before I went to bed.'—'Then, sir,' observed he, 'I fear I kept you up late.'—Not so late, I assured him, as I wished; as my only regret was, that, instead of translating merely detached parts of Virgil and Horace, he had not completed a Georgic, an *Æneid*, an Epistle, or a Satire. He answered, that he made the versions as particular passages struck him; and that he meant hereafter to complete them, particularly Ho-

race's Art of Poetry. I then informed him, that I was much delighted with his sonnets; and greatly so with the one entitled 'The Sensitive Linnet,' of which I begged him to give me permission to take a copy to shew to a friend or two. He replied, I was welcome to do so: but he would take the liberty to request that I would not give a copy of it; as perhaps, one time or other, he might venture to send some of his little pieces to a newspaper or a magazine. I assured him it should remain with me. Had it not been for this observation, I should certainly have desired copies of several others of these early productions. Yet, could I have taken a peep into futurity, and then foreseen his premature loss to the literary world, I should have been tempted to possess myself of more copies without making suit to him for the permission.

"I asked him whether the sonnet of 'The Sensitive Linnet' was a fiction, or occasioned by any real occurrence. He answered, that there was at least as much truth, as of poetic licence in it. He then stated the following particulars; which, though on a subject really pathetic, were delivered by him with such an archness of countenance, that it was not possible for me, during the narrative, to repress a smile. His account of the occasion of the sonnet was, to the best of my recollection, literally as follows: 'That a young lady of his acquaintance, residing at Ennis, was very fond of a linnet; and the linnet appeared equally fond of the young miss: but the young lady soon got a sweet-heart; when, instead of singing to the linnet, she sung to her lover.

The poor bird seemed to feel this neglect of its mistress. At length the lover proved false, which put miss deeply in the dumps; the linnet, from sympathy (he supposed), grew dumpish also, and speedily died: and the young lady, whether for the loss of her sweetheart or of her bird (he could not say which), appeared, when he left the country, in a very fair way of following her linnet: that the subject struck his fancy; and induced him to compose these few stanzas, with some other little pieces, during his late journey to Dublin.'

"The following is an exact transcript of the copy I took of the sonnet; which, though marked, in every line, with great simplicity of thought and diction, will incline you, I imagine, to join me in opinion, that it would not have disgraced the pen of a writer of double the age of our then very juvenile poet. You will perceive that he makes the lady address the linnet:

'THE SENSITIVE LINNET.

'My fond social linnet, to thee
What dear winning charms did belong!
On my hand thou would'st carol with glee,
On my bosom attend to my song.
Sweet bird, in return for my strain,
Thou warblest thy own o'er again.

Love, jealous a bird should thus share

My affections, shot speedy his dart:
To my swain now I sung ev'ry air;

The linnet soon took it to heart.

Sweet bird, in how plaintive a strain
Thou warblest thy own jealous pain!

But faithless my lover I found;

And in vain to forget him I tried:

The linnet perceiv'd my heart's wound;

He sick'n'd, he droop'd, and he died.

Sweet bird, why to death yield the strain?

Thy song would have lighten'd my pain.

Dear linnet, I'll pillow thy head;

In down will I coffin thy breast;

And when thy sad mistress is dead,

Together in peace we will rest.

Sweet bird, how ill-fated our strain!
We shall warble, alas! ne'er again.'

"Day after day did our juvenile literary hero add, in some way or other, to my admiration of his talents. His conversation, in particular, was frequently distinguished for observation so much beyond his years, that at length, whenever he was about to speak, I expected to hear something worthy of matured abilities. After about a fortnight's acquaintance with him, and when we began to be on a familiar footing, I had a curiosity to know his favourite authors among the Latin classics. 'He answered, Virgil and Horace; that he preferred the Georgics of the former to his Eneid, and the Epistles and Art of Poetry of the latter to any other of his works.' In discoursing with him concerning these poets, I found likewise that he was not a little conversant with several of their annotators; particularly Scaliger and madame Dacier. Nay, sir, you may think it scarcely credible, but he absolutely questioned in a few instances, which he one day specified (but which I have in vain attempted to recollect), the justness of their annotations. I asked whether he did not think it somewhat bold in him to make so free with characters of eminence. He replied, that he did not perceive any great freedom in expressing his own conviction; particularly as critics were of opinion that even Homer himself sometimes nodded.

"From the manner which marked his delivery of this last observation (for his physiognomy and even his gestures now became subjects of interest to me), I discovered in his constitution a spark of impatience

science under gentle rebuke; and an occurrence which took place a few days subsequent to this conversation, tended to confirm the opinion I had formed. The matter was this: The chief deficiency to be found in his Latin classical attainments, was now and then a false pronounciation of a word in point of quantity; and this I intimated to him one day while he was reading an ode of Horace. I instantly perceived a momentary scowl on his brow; but, quickly dispersing it, he said, that ‘the great variety of measures which the odes of Horace displayed, occasioned him perhaps to make the slip.’—‘Come, come, my friend,’ cried I, ‘honestly confess, that in your rapid pursuit of learning, you sometimes overleapt your Prosodia and Gradus.’ The scowl returned; and he replied somewhat peevishly I thought, ‘Well, sir; I don’t think that I am too old to amend my error.’—‘Certainly not, my dear friend: but excuse me; for I am really anxious to see the utmost correctness in all points, in a genius of such early and great promise.’

“About this time an incident took place, which, I flatter myself, you will not deem uninteresting. Happening to meet a gentleman of my acquaintance, a Mr. French, who was an excellent classical scholar, I informed him that I had a literary prodigy at my house: a boy ten years old, who not only had Horace and Homer at his finger’s end, but possessed a strong natural vein for poetical composition. Mr. French, thinking me perhaps somewhat too warm in my account of his abilities, asked me whether I had not a vein of jocularity. ‘Come, and see the boy,’ I replied; ‘and he will astonish

you.’ My friend promised to call on me soon. On returning home, I informed Dermody that a gentleman of my acquaintance, a man of learning, purposed to pay me a visit, in order to have an interview with him; and that I wished him to be as collected as possible on the occasion, as my credit respecting himself was much concerned. The next day Mr. French called, while Dermody had gone to take a walk in the College-park. He brought with him a Horace of the small Elzevir edition, and seemed much disappointed at not meeting our young hero within. In a few moments, however, Dermody returned; and I presented him to Mr. French. On seeing a lad of so extremely youthful an aspect; of a delicate make, and small size, and with a little frilled shirt-collar open; in short, of an appearance, in every external point of view, almost infantine; my friend said to me in a low voice, ‘Pshaw! it is impossible.’—‘Try him,’ cried I. Mr. French took out his little Horace; and addressing Dermody, told him that ‘he had an acquaintance of his, as he understood, in his hand.’ Dermody, noticing the small size of the book, whispered me, that he fancied the gentleman was going to exercise him in the Latin Accidence. But when my friend handed him the book, and he perceived it was Horace, it is not possible to describe the animation of the boy’s countenance. Scarcely conceiving that so diminutive a volume could contain all Horace’s works, his eyes and fingers were equally rapid in turning to the different parts of the book. At length, finding it complete, he exclaimed to Mr. French, ‘Bless me, sir! this is *multum in parvo* indeed; but it is without notes, I perceive.’

—‘By

—‘By the accounts I have received,’ answered Mr. French, ‘you do not stand in need of notes.’ Dermody made him a bow for the compliment.

“Mr. French, eager to satisfy his curiosity, now asked him to construe any ode he liked. Dermody closed the book, returned it to Mr. French, and begged that he himself would fix on an ode. He then opened the volume, and presented Dermody with the eleventh ode of the first book; observing to him that it was a very short one. ‘The more suitable, sir,’ answered Dermody with a smile, ‘to a little scholar.’ Our young hero, seeing pen, ink, and paper, on the table, added, that, ‘with the gentleman’s permission, he would write a translation of the ode.’ Mr. French approved; when I desired Dermody to let it be not a close, but a free translation. The boy seated himself at the table, with the ode before him; and Mr. French and myself took a book to amuse us while he was employed, as well as to have an opportunity of observing him. I desired my friend to look at his watch; he did so: and in nine minutes Dermody came and presented him with the translation; which we found, to our agreeable surprise, to be a poetical one.

“Before I state to you the version he had so speedily executed, and of which I afterwards procured a copy from Mr. French, permit me to introduce it with the original text; particularly on account of an interesting conversation that took place between my friend and Dermody respecting some particular passages in it. The Latin ode is as follows:

‘Tu ne quæsieris (scire nefas) quem mihi,
quem tibi,
Finem Dî dederint, Leuconoë; nec Baby-
lonios
Tentâris numeros: ut melius, quicquid
erit, pati;
Seu plures hyemes, seu tribuit Jupiter
ultimam,
Quæ nunc oppositis debilitat pumicibus
mare
Tyrrhenum. Sapias, vina liques, et spatio
breui
Spem longam reseces. Dum loquimur,
fugerit invida
Ætas: carpe diem, quàm minimùm cre-
dula postero.’

TRANSLATION.

‘Thy search, Leuconoë, give o’er;
For, know, ’t is impious to explore
When Death shall summon at thy gate;
Nor ask astrologers thy fate.
Life’s storms more firmly thou ’lt sustain,
If thou incurious wilt remain
Whether, by potent Jove’s decree,
Tyrrhenian floods thou ’lt live to see
Rebound, one winter’s reign, or more,
Against thy mansion’s rock-worn shore.
Be wise; and, from life’s little Act,
Thy hopes of lengthen’d bliss contract:
For while we speak time flies apace;
Quick, quick, the present joy embrace,
Nor trust to-morrow’s flatt’ring face.’ }

“Mr. French, having read the foregoing with evident marks of admiration and surprise, asked Dermody what induced him to translate *quem tibi finem* by ‘When Death shall summon at thy gate?’ —‘From a passage, sir,’ replied Dermody, ‘in Horace’s fourth ode of the first book.’—‘I thought so,’ cried Mr. French; ‘it was for that very reason I asked you the question. Pray, repeat the passage as well as you recollect it.’ Dermody paused a moment, and then quoted:

Pallida Mors æquo pulsat pede pauperum
tabernas,
Regumque turres.

‘Right, my dear boy!’ exclaimed Mr. French; and with rapture again shook him by the hand.

“My

“My friend now took me aside, and intimated that there was an expression in the translation which seemed to imply geographical knowledge, and likewise an historical anecdote which (he must confess) he did not recollect; and therefore was inclined to ask the boy another question or two. ‘Do not,’ I said, ‘be too hard with him; you ought to be content with his ready version of the ode.’—‘But I am confident,’ resumed Mr. French, ‘from what I have already heard and seen, that he will be able to answer me.’—‘Then gratify your inclination,’ I replied.—Mr. French returned to his seat, and asked Dermody, ‘what was his reason, as the ode does not specify any particular shore where the Mediterranean sea beat, why he fixed it at a spot where he seemed to think that Leuconoë had a mansion.’ Dermody answered, ‘he was sure it was unnecessary to inform him, that Italy stretched out between the Mare Tyrrhenum and Mare Adriaticum; and that a French critic was of opinion that Leuconoë had a handsome house on the Italian shore, for the safety of which she was apprehensive from the violence of the winter’s storm and wave.’ Mr. French asked, to what critic he alluded. Dermody replied, ‘he could not mention his name; but that he perfectly recollected, from a note he had read in Francis’s Horace, that the critic was a member of the academy of Belles-lettres.’ Mr. French justly remarked, that ‘whether the French critic was right or not in his judgment, it did the boy much credit to have noticed his opinion, and justified him in giving the passage that freedom of translation which he had employed.’

“My friend, having again read

the translation, intimated to Dermody that he had omitted noticing the *vina liques*. Dermody replied, with much archness of countenance, that ‘he made the omission for two reasons; first, because he thought it would be unfashionable to suggest to ladies of modern days, that a fine Roman lady descended to such housewifery as that of filtering wines; and secondly, as it was evident from the whole tenor of the ode that Leuconoë was very inquisitive, our unlearned wits perhaps would say that after filtering the wines she doubtless had the curiosity to taste freely of them.’ At this observation, and from the droll manner in which Dermody made it, Mr. French could not contain himself. He held his sides with laughter; and exclaimed: ‘Why, you young, sarcastic, wicked rogue, you are more severe on Leuconoë than Horace himself was.’—‘There might be a reason,’ replied Dermody, ‘why Horace did not wish to be too severe on her.’—‘What was that, my boy?’—‘Why, sir, some critics are of opinion that Leuconoë was a lady of not the greatest virtue; and possibly Horace might have sometimes visited her at her snug mansion on the sea-coast.’ My friend burst again into loud laughter; and told Dermody jocosely, that he would one time or other get thrashed if he indulged this satirical vein. ‘But come,’ cried Mr. French, ‘it is time that I should make you some return for the great pleasure you have given me. Here; as you seem to admire this small edition of Horace, accept it from me. It will go into one of your breeches-pockets; and here is something to occupy the other;’ giving him a handful of silver. ‘I envy your friend, Doctor Houlton, his pos-

session of you: but I shall sometimes drop in to have a conversation with you; so, for the present, adieu, my dear little boy.'

"Shortly after this occurrence, Dermody, having noticed a chest of old books in an upper room, asked my permission to go and inspect them. 'Aye,' cried I; 'go, and rummage as much as you please.' He set off with as much pleasure to examine the chest, as many boys feel in laying by their books for the Christmas holidays. In a few minutes he came down stairs, ran into the parlour, and exclaimed, 'Oh, sir! I have found a book which I have long wished to see; a sweet writer I am told: it is Anacreon.' He hardly gave me time to express my satisfaction, before he was seated by the fire; and so intent on reading the Greek bard in the original text, as to appear insensible to every thing round him. I addressed him two or three times; but I might as well have spoken to one in a profound sleep. At length, after having been amused with his motions for some minutes, I took him by the shoulders, roused him from his delicious trance, and told him that I was engaged out to dinner, I would leave him to dine with his new acquaintance Anacreon; whom he would find not only a beautiful writer, but a merry jolly fellow, too fond perhaps of love and a bottle. 'Ah!' cried he, with one of his inexpressible looks, 'it was very hard that a lover of wine should have been choked with a grape-stone; which, from the Latin preface, I see was his fate.' I have mentioned before in this letter, an indescribable archness of countenance that this boy had when he was about to convey a sly insinuation, or to make a droll observation.

In general his physiognomy was as serious as the face of a judge; and tinged with a dash of melancholy; but when he now observed to me that 'it was a pity a lover of wine should be choked with a grape-stone,' he spoke it in so dry and arch a manner, that my risible muscles were irresistibly called into action.

"On my return home in the evening, to convince me how delighted he had been with Anacreon, he shewed me a poetical version of the first three odes, which he had executed during my absence. To say that I was pleased with them, would but ill express my admiration: they would have done credit to a pen of a much riper age; they displayed the sweet easy flow of that tuneful Grecian bard's versification; in a word, they were, even in an English dress, truly Anacreontic. I begged him to proceed: in a few days he had finished the first book, and assured me that he would soon give a poetical translation of the entire volume. And here again I cannot but greatly regret that I did not possess myself of the copies of these his early versions from Anacreon; particularly as a moment was then near at hand, when a sudden call in my professional business to a remote part of Ireland, which detained me from Dublin for many months, put me under the necessity of separating from this most extraordinary youthful genius. But having little doubt of meeting with him on my return, I was less attentive to possess myself of many of those juvenile productions which he had executed in my house. It was my misfortune, however, that from various accidents and circumstances, I never had another opportunity of seeing

ing him from that time to the day of his death.

“A few circumstances remain for me to state, which perhaps may not be unworthy of attention.—My servant informed me that she had repeatedly noticed a light in Dermody’s room at very late hours; and that, making an excuse to go in, she found him reading in bed, with a number of loose papers scattered about. Dreading the consequences, particularly from an accident that had nearly proved fatal to myself through an indulgence of this dangerous practice while at college, I desired her, when he retired to rest, to let his candle be little more than sufficient to light him to bed. A day or two after his taper had been thus curtailed, he observed to me one morning, at breakfast, with a very significant countenance, that he believed my maid was very careful. ‘Why so, Dermody?’—‘Because, sir, she allows me but an inch of candle when I retire to rest; and then added:

‘The niggard taper yields its short-liv’d ray,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.’

The emphasis he gave to the word ‘niggard,’ and the look that accompanied it, clearly shewed me its direction. But not willing that he should perceive I understood him, I turned the conversation, by observing that he had read Gray’s *Elegy* in a Country Church-yard. ‘Yes, sir,’ replied he, ‘often read it with tears: and I fancy the first verse of the Epitaph will not be un-

suitable for my own humble tombstone.’—‘Repeat,’ cried I, ‘the stanza:’ which he did with an expression and a pathos that made an indelible impression on my memory*.

“I told him, that his talents, with prudence of conduct, would certainly lead him to a better destiny. He answered with a deep sigh, ‘that the contrary presentiment was strong, and he could not divest himself of it.’ A few days after this, my servant informed me that she had found some candles in Dermody’s room, behind his trunk. In consequence, I now thought it prudent to speak to him explicitly on the danger of reading in bed. He took my remonstrance very ill, threw out a sarcastic observation on the unhappy state of dependence, and appeared sullen the whole of the ensuing day. I was sorry to perceive, at all times, a spirit of resentment, and an impatience under rebuke, which I wished had not dwelt with such very promising literary talents; but which were accompanied at the same time with some interesting remarks, that I fear were too forcibly verified in the subsequent parts of the life of this extraordinary genius.

“From this time he appeared to manifest a restlessness of disposition, as if he wished to be more his own master; so that I am inclined to think, that even if my business in the country had not compelled me to part with my young friend, he would soon have separated himself from me. But, however he might neglect my ad-

* ‘Here rests his head upon the lap of earth,
A youth to fortune and to fame unknown;
Fair Science frown’d not on his humble birth,
And Melancholy mark’d him for her own.’

vice, I determined, before leaving Dublin, to do him every service in my power. For this purpose I waited on my friend Mr. French, to consult with him on the means of procuring Dermody some suitable situation: but, unfortunately, that gentleman had sailed a few days before, for England; otherwise, I am confident he would have immediately taken him under his protection.

"As the day was now near when my engagements required my absence from town, I expressed to Dermody my great regret that I could not leave him in a situation worthy of his abilities, gave him what money my circumstances

would admit, and wished him every success and happiness.

"Thus, sir, I have furnished you, according to your request, with a minute narrative of such circumstances as I judged most interesting, during a period of about ten weeks which this juvenile genius, so uncommon both in acquired learning and in natural talents, resided with me; a narrative which, though consisting wholly of matters of fact within my own knowledge, I should be timorous in offering, were it not from a full confidence that every part of the history which you are about to give will substantiate my statements."

LAST SCENES of the LIFE of THOMAS DERMODY.

(From the SAME.)

"DURING the period he was enjoying the liberal favours of sir James Bland Burges and the Literary Fund, his genius attracted the patronage of the right honourable Henry Addington, then chancellor of the exchequer (now lord viscount Sidmouth), and his brother the right honourable Hiley Addington.

"It is not a less dignified than pleasing task to relate the generous actions of men; particularly of those who, though placed in stations where access is difficult, and where (as is generally conceived) complaint can be but seldom heard, can yet, amid the bustle and distraction of public business, of framing laws, and deciding on the fate of nations, consider and relieve the distresses of suffering merit.

"Few indeed have experienced so liberal and exalted a patronage as Dermody, and it is infinitely to be

regretted that none ever made so unwise a use of it. Unfortunately, he had so connected himself with the lowest associates, that no resolution he possessed could shake off the power which those harpies had gained over his too easy disposition. They knew his foibles; which they nourished in order to profit by them, and this they did at too large a cost. The sacrifice of his happiness was by them considered as trifling and indispensable, provided they were themselves to benefit by it; and even character and honourable feeling (which he sometimes told them were necessary to be preserved) were, when their exigences pressed, to be given up. Such was the degrading condition to which his follies often reduced him, that he was considered by these wretches as in a state of vassalage, and by the dread of punishment to be rendered passive and obedient

obedient to their will. Sometimes he would, however, disregard their authority, and assert his independence: which he did by flying from one miserable lodging to another still more so; and remaining there till the same cause, or the terror of an arrest, compelled him to return to the former spot. Those who gained most by his weakness, were the persons with whom at various necessitous periods he lodged; and such was the power of habit, or such his fatal propensity for this kind of society, that he was continually involved with them in their poverty and low excesses. The little food he required was generally purchased and prepared by them: and no regular agreement having been made, a running account was always kept against Dermody; according to which the sum he owed them might, for any knowledge he had of the justice of the claim, have been at any time one pound or one hundred.

“They found this plan too profitable to adopt any other; and by keeping him always in debt, they kept him always in dread. Whenever he received a sum of money, he honestly brought it to his landlord, who always (as he termed it) “carried it to the account;” and when money was wanted and Dermody had none to give, the request was in general followed by an arrest, which frequently turned out a very profitable speculation. The fear of a prison made him importune his friends, who never suffered him to languish in confinement: and as those who had occasioned his embarrassments were his messengers during such periods, they consequently obtained a knowledge of his patrons; and turned the kind benevolence intended to re-

lieve him, into a source of emolument to themselves.

“The natural consequence of thoughtlessness and dissipation is dependence; and as Dermody had in his exigences no other means of support than what these associates were pleased to afford him, he conceived himself bound when fortune smiled upon him, not only to discharge his debts of this description, but to bestow some signal mark of favour for the kindness thus conferred upon him while penniless. These returns varied, according as the obligations he laboured under were weighty or trivial; without any consideration of the motive which occasioned them. At one time he might be seen in his garret in company with his hosts the cobbler and his wife, and some attic lodger of equal consequence, regaling on a goose which his industry had roasted by a string in his own apartment: while the pallet-bed, which stood in a corner, was strewed with various vegetables; the fire-side decorated with numerous foaming pots of porter; and the cobbler’s work-stool, boot-leg, lap-stone, &c. were commodiously placed as seats. On another occasion, in some neighbouring ale-house, entertaining the same personages with the various rarities which resorts of this description generally afford: where as the astonished guests, enveloped in clouds of smoke, sat listening with rapture to the eloquence of Dermody, the host was to be discovered in the back ground applauding with one hand, while his other dextrously scored an additional item to the bill; which, if Dermody could not discharge it during the following day, was at once put into the hands of some pettifogging practitioner of the law, and the

the unfortunate debtor appeared in the evening through the bars of a spunging-house, like Bajazet in his iron cage.

“A singular circumstance of this kind occurred while Dermody lodged at a mean public-house in Portpool-lane. The author had received a very melancholy epistle from him, in which he deplored his want of proper clothes to visit Mr. Addington in, as he had been requested to do on something material concerning the publication of his Ode to Peace, which in a few days after made its appearance. Business of some consequence prevented the author from attending on him at the time mentioned; and some days having passed before his leisure permitted him to supply the things required, he went one evening to apologize for his apparent neglect, and to mention that the necessary articles were ready. On entering the house his ears were assailed by violent plaudits and huzzas, which appeared to issue from the attic story. Having little curiosity to inquire into the cause of these extraordinary rejoicings, he only requested to see Dermody. The good woman of the house quickly dispatched a messenger to give the proper information; and the author was soon ushered into a room, at the top of which sat Dermody in a new suit of clothes, surrounded by half a score of the landlord’s smoking-acquaintances; the table strewn with tobacco, pipes and a plentiful flow of wine and spirits; and the side board loaded with bottles, the late contents of which had left the members of this elevated society in a state of equal jollity and confusion.

“The entrance of the author damped the joy of the meeting:

and Dermody, who well knew that the look which accompanied his appearance in the room was a just rebuke for the impropriety of his conduct, began to frame an apology; which being little attended to, he flew into a rage, and repeated the following lines:

‘When wit’s wild flashes wreath a smile,
Dimpling on Bacchus’ blushy cheek;
Or when, gaunt sorrow to beguile,
Outrageous peals of humour break;
If then, all furrow’d o’er with frown,
With mad-cap jollity at odds,
You strike each quaint chimera down,
A fiend amid the laughing Gods;
Go to the tabernacled clan,
Who drone devotion through the nose,
And hide with pray’r the inward man?—
I herd not with such imps as those.
If your pure palate is so nice,
That ev’n in frolic’s festive hour
You can’t endure a little vice,
To sweeten life’s eternal sour;
’Fore heaven! you’ll find no saint in me,
From passion’s furnace glowing hot;
And as for prim hypocrisy,
Hypocrisy! I know her not.”

“It was, however, soon discovered that the honourable Mr. Bragge had presented him with the clothes, as well as the money which was thus imprudently lavished upon vipers whose rapacious appetites, could they have by that means derived equal gratification, would have preyed on his vitals.

“It was the author’s custom on such occasions to give him a severe lecture; which frequently finished with a strong injunction not to approach his apartment till he had acknowledged his improprieties, and made promises of amendment. An injunction of this kind generally produced a remonstrance like the following:

“To

* To Mr. Raymond, 293, Piccadilly.

‘ My dear friend,

‘ I have been infinitely unhappy in incurring your just displeasure. You will distract me if you continue your anger; but to hinder any other similar offence, I give you my honour, *my oath*, I will not taste a glass of intemperate liquor for these ten months to come. My Poems are to be commenced this week; I shall be busy in correcting the proofs, and must be attentive. You will perceive how good I shall be. In the course of to-morrow I shall finish some lines on the death of lord Moira’s brother, the honourable G. Rawdon; and wish to get their insertion insured in the Monthly Mirror. How could you be so severe in your note? though indeed I deserve it, I am sure. I can’t tell when I shall have sufficient assurance to face you; but I think you will forgive me, and lose such vile folly in utter oblivion. I have not, by heavens! been drunk but twice or thrice, and unhappily have seen and shocked you each time; but if it ever occurs again, I give you liberty to use me equal to my demerits. I stopped all the night before last, and yesterday, at Mr. Allingham’s chambers; and could not apologize till now. I am ashamed to sign my name; though it is better to acknowledge, than persist in error. Pray let me hear from you.

‘ Your obliged and grateful

‘ THOMAS DERMODY.

‘ P. S. I expect to get some money from a gentleman in the course of the week; but I am in so much want of the stockings and shoes you so kindly ordered me, and which I so foolishly pledged, that I can’t stir out. You know I am

very much in your debt; and had I not been drunk and mad, could not have the impudence to ask you for money; but if you can procure me a coat and waistcoat of some kind, and send me the duplicate of the stockings and shoes, you will, my good friend, much oblige me. As I certainly, for the world, would not approach you yet, and as it is too far to send your servant, I wish you could send me them with a note, by some messenger or other, a stranger. Recollect my asseveration of amendment, and forget what has past at this particular crisis. T. D.’

“ The avarice of those persons with whom he lodged was more vexatious to him than even the importunities of want. Neither the bounty of his patrons, the sacrifice of health, nor the casual supplies afforded him by the exertion of his talents, could release him from their persecution; and the reflection that his indigence kept him continually in their power, often drove him to commit those wild extravagances which generally ended in riot and intoxication. By their nefarious schemes he was kept in perpetual poverty; and being without that necessary caution and knowledge of the world which teach men to guard against the snares of deliberate villany, his short and eventful life was made one varied scene of calamity and distress.

“ These excesses, however, began at last to shake his constitution. He frequently felt much pain and inconvenience from an asthmatic complaint: and being told that it would prove fatal to him if he continued in his course of dissipation, he began to think it was time to reform his way of living; which

he very speedily accomplished, though not without some formidable struggles."——

"Dermody was, however, at this time in a more deplorable condition than he had been in for many months. He found his applications, wherever they were made, disregarded; and his health so much impaired, that a change of air was absolutely necessary for his recovery. Having lost the esteem of many who had liberally and frequently relieved his wants, and being in daily dread of further persecution from those persons whom he had so often pampered, he formed the resolution of freeing himself entirely from a connection which now, at too late a period, he felt to be both degrading and destructive. To effect so desirable a change, money was wanted; and unfortunately he had wearied the generosity of even his warmest friends. The earl of Moira was in Scotland, and therefore immediate relief could not be expected from his lordship. He had slighted Mr. Bragge, and highly offended sir James Bland Burges. The members of the Literary Fund had so frequently attended to the applications made in his behalf, that any further demand in that quarter he deemed imprudent for the present.

"He had likewise neglected his last generous patron, Mr. Addington; nor was he less culpable with regard to the interest which that highly esteemed gentleman's brother took in his pursuits and advancement. Mr. Addington, as Dermody has himself acknowledged in the following lines, not only relieved his wants, but endeavoured to correct his errors: condescending to advise him; and, but for his fatal negligence, doubtless will-

ing to have pointed out a path where prudence and the exertion of his talents would have secured him fame and independance. But he disregarded alike the admonition of those distinguished benefactors, and the prospect of future greatness; and thus again sunk into contempt and poverty.

EXCULPATORY LINES.

TO ATTICUS.

*Quo quisque est major, magis et placabilis ira;
Et faciles motus mens generosa capit.*
OVID.

• By what strange fate great talents are allied
To greatest faults, whose judgment can decide?
Whether the finer fibres of the brain,
Intensely bent, and stretching ev'n to pain,
Relaxing, may too frequently require
Fresh fuel for the intellectual fire:
Or that rash genius, in its wild career,
All-devious visits each eccentric sphere;
And, conversant with fancied forms of air,
Mocks the cold caution of terrestrial care;—
Now, bravely borne on seraph-wing sublime,
List'ning th' eternal systems' choral chime;
Now mid the gloom of central Hades hurl'd,
Groping the rayless dungeons of the world;
Anon with more effulgent face to rise,
And, sun-like, travel through serener skies,
Till vile Intemperance, of hideous birth,
The struggling pinion chains to native earth,
And reason's spark, irregularly bright,
At length exhausted sinks in mournful night.
How sad the wreck, the triumph how malign,
When Vice allures the Muses to her shrine;
Round her black brow when roses are entwined,
And demons revel o'er the ruin'd mind!

• In vain for causes would stern prudence seek,
But of the dread effect all ages speak;
While

While on full many a minstrel's doom
 severe,
 Relenting pardon streams th' eternal
 tear.—
 Though 'mid the guilty but illustrious
 band
 My humble name unknown must never
 stand;
 Though little praise, alas! to me is due;
 Would I deserv'd so little censure too!
 Deeply impress'd th' unpleasing theme
 I feel,
 Which conscious blushes, spite of pride,
 reveal:
 Yet, sooth'd once more by thy absolving
 smile,
 Enrag'd compunction's scorpion-sting be-
 guile;
 And find my soul from sensual bondage
 free,
 Tutor'd by Virtue, Atticus, and thee.'

"Dermody was not here totally forsaken; Mr. Hatchard the bookseller received instructions from Mr. Addington to print and publish a volume of his poems which was at this time preparing for the press. This liberality was truly honourable to the feelings of his patron, to whom his follies and imprudence had justly made him in some measure obnoxious; but his poverty and his fatal illness now rendered his days and nights heavy and burdensome, and it was hoped that his distresses would be alleviated by the profits arising from the sale of the work.

"Mr. Addington's humane dispositions, however, were in some degree frustrated. The bookseller retained half the profits; and the sum which Dermody received on account of the publication thus highly patronized and *thus shared*, was scarcely sufficient to alleviate in the smallest degree his accumulating distresses. Mr. Hatchard indeed asserts, 'that the account has been settled to the satisfaction of the gentleman who employed him.' This being allowed, it is not necessary that the author of

these Memoirs should inquire whether it was the original intention of Mr. Addington that Dermody should be deprived of any of the benefits of the publication. If such was the case, it may well be supposed to have been contrary to the hopes and expectations of the wretched author; who had on every former occasion received an undivided portion of his generous patron's favour and protection; and this supposition agrees with the positive assertion of Dermody on his *death-bed*.

"The principal poems in this collection are the *Extravaganza*, the *Pleasures of Poesy*, the *Enthusiast*, and *Aribert and Angela*; the latter of which, a legendary tale, is dedicated to his generous benefactor sir James Bland Burges, in the following sonnet:

'Again my spirit wakes from deep re-
 pose,
 Though deep not joyless; and each
 fairer dream
 That Fancy on the pregnant trance be-
 stows,
 Bids o'er the page in lasting beauty
 stream.
 But, ah! no dazzling glories shalt thou
 find,
 Such as illumine thy own consummate
 lay;
 No miracles of the effulgent mind,
 To guide thee through Invention's
 Milky-way.

'A shepherd's simple song of ardent youth,
 A rude narration, and of Love sincere;
 Which Nature's mighty self, and virgin
 Truth,
 Instill'd erewhile into his raptur'd ear:
 Nor only shall it charm the village train,
 If thou wilt deign to list so low a strain.'

"Dermody speaks of this collection in the following terms:

'Though it may not be properly my province to discuss the merits of my own performances, yet I shall venture to intrude a few cursory remarks on the additional verses which enlarge this collection;

not, however, presuming to ante-date the free right of opinion and judgment vested in the public, whom I esteem as my best patron in the hour of danger.

‘The *Extravaganza*, which is perhaps the most original and fanciful poem I ever had sufficient powers to compose, together with the two Imitations of Spenser, have been honoured, while in manuscript, with the very flattering approbation of some of the first literary characters of the day. I do not think myself entitled to particularize the respective names of those celebrated personages: neither might it afford any very favourable idea of my personal modesty; whatever scope it might yield to the emotions of gratitude, and the public avowal of my feelings. My professed aversion to the arbitrary and ill-founded innovations of some modern reformers has induced me to aim at the manly style of our poetical fathers; and to attempt the revival of spirited sentiment, relieved by the chaste and graceful simplicity of forcible diction. How far I have succeeded, and what degree of lenity may be due to the ardour of emulation, must rest entirely on the candid decision of the reader. I shall at any rate have the conscious satisfaction, in case of a failure in execution, of considering that my efforts were laudable and unassuming, untinctured with the slightest hue of critical arrogance; and content myself with the beautiful and appropriate reflection of Silius Italicus:

‘Explorant adversa viros; perque aspera
duro
Nititur ad laudem virtus interrita clivo.’

“These pieces, however, possess a degree of merit which the poet did not attach to them. The *Ex-*

travaganza is full of that delightful fancy which is the result of superlative genius alone, and which extends its creative powers to visionary worlds.

“There are also many beautiful passages to be found in the Pleasures of Poesy: the whole is strongly conceived; and the sentiments by which he has delineated the powers of his poetical ancestors, are happily combined and fancifully expressed. The moral reflections are likewise calculated to improve the mind, and paint with beauteous imagery the comforts arising from patient resignation under affliction. After enumerating the pleasures which wealth produces, he applies this healing balm to Genius pining in obscurity:

‘Then wail not, Genius, thy unworthy lot,
Where’er thou sadly shrink’st from sight
profane;
Thy patient labours shall not be forgot,
Nor lost the influence of thy lofty strain.
From Glory’s nodding crest, of crimson
stain,
The laurel shall forsake its seat sublime;
The prostrate column load the groaning
plain;
While rising o’er the wreck, thy sacred
rhime
Shall fire to noble feats the sons of future
time.

‘Vagrant, and scoff’d, and houseless,
as thou art,
The powerful spell of thy exalted theme
Shall wake to bolder deed the warrior’s
heart,
Shall breathe o’er sleeping Love a brighter
dream;
From ev’ry line shall fresh instruction
stream.
The cottage-hearth thy pensive plaint
shall hear;
In regal hall thy glitt’ring harp shall
gleam;
The dark cold breast of lonely sorrow
cheer;
And start from Frenzy’s lid Conviction’s
frozen tear.’

“The poem of the Enthusiast is such as only an enthusiast in the art could produce, when the unbridled

bridled fancy is set at liberty, and roams through boundless tracts of visionary delight. The first stanza will justify this assertion :

‘ With hurrying finger smite the fervid wire.

Th’ intolerable rapture tears my soul :
I burn with inspiration’s fiercest fire ;
In lawless liberty my senses roll
Beyond demurer Reason’s coy control,
Beyond the sapient bounds by Prudence laid ;

And while unwonted fantasies inspire,
Amid th’ interminable waste of shade,
In mad delirium lost, my daring tour is made.’

“ Danger is finely pourtrayed in these lines :

‘ High o’er the headlong torrent’s foamy fall,
Whose waters howl along the rugged steep,
On the loose-jutting rock, or mould’ring wall,
See where gaunt Danger lays him down to sleep !

The piping winds his mournful vigil keep ;
The lightnings blue his stony pillow warm ;

Anon, incumbent o’er the dreary deep,
The fiend enormous strides the lab’ring storm,
And ’mid the thund’rous strife expands his giant form.’

“ Madness and Love are next described, and Jealousy follows :

‘ Ah ! who is she, of dark unsettled brow,
That bleeding drags an angel-shape behind,
And quaffs the living gore ?—I know her now :

’Tis Jealousy ; that monster of the mind,
In whom are thousand contraries combin’d.

Now moping, melancholy, o’er the wild ;
Now fretful, rash, unreas’ning, unconfin’d :

In Constancy’s best blood her hands defil’d ;

And strangling in its birth her own devoted child.’

“ He now floats down the smooth declivity of nether ether, to a sheltered vale, where he mingles with the fantastic bevvies of “faeryland.”

‘ Minions of moonlight, let my slow step steal,
Unblam’d and guiltless, on your secret sport ;

Removing soft the visionary veil
That wraps from vulgar ken the elfin-court,

Where no unhallow’d visitants resort.
Lo, where the lords of faery-land appear !
Chieftains, and frowning peers of princely port,

Sage counsellors with piercing eye severe,
And less distinguish’d knights fast trooping in the rear.

‘ The monarch’s self majestic terrors grace :

Tipp’d with a horse-fly’s tongue, a rush his spear ;

A gnat’s slight pinion shades his martial face ;

A fish’s scale his armed shoulders wear,
Lin’d with a scarf of shining gossamer ;
Unknown in listed fray the prize to yield,
His rapier is a hornet’s sting severe ;
Superior to the rest, his shelly shield
Undauntedly he shakes, and overlooks the field.’

“ The other pieces in this collection possess sufficient merit to delight the reader of taste ; and it will be found also, as the poet has himself modestly expressed, that ‘ they are neither licentious nor immoral ; and though sparingly illuminated by the vivid coruscations of wit, not frequently destitute of ethic observation and salutary precept.’

“ But, alas ! the period was now fast advancing when the praise or censure of the world could avail him nothing ; his poverty and his disorder (a rapid decline) had so destroyed and reduced both his spirits and his frame, that medical aid could only be applied to relieve, not to restore him. He was blind, however, to the alteration which his malady had made in his appearance ; and fancied that the strength of his constitution, and proper nourishment, would remove his illness, and renovate his spirits. Unfortunately, his situation was at this time unknown to those liberal

friends who had so often assisted him : he had withdrawn from their notice ; and, conscious of his imprudence, would not apply, lest his story should be disbelieved, and his solicitations slighted. The aid afforded by the very few who were acquainted with his present melancholy condition, was not sufficient to procure the comforts his daily increasing malady required.

“To alleviate the evils by which he was so heavily oppressed, he requested the author to write in his name to the earl of Moira, sir James Bland Burges, and his early patron Mr. Smith of Dublin. This was done ; and in his wretched apartment he himself dictated the letters to which each of the following answers contains its writer’s noblest panegyric.

‘To Mr. Raymond.

‘Tunbridge Wells, 13th June, 1802.

‘Sir,

‘On my return from Maidstone I was favoured with your letter of last Saturday. The interest which you take on behalf of the unfortunate Mr. Dermody does infinite credit to your heart. I certainly estimate very highly his talents ; and, so far as with propriety I could, I assisted him in his distresses. I am willing to draw a veil over the causes which induced me to break off my acquaintance with him ; and if the annexed draft (for ten pounds) can, in your hands, contribute to soothe his present distresses, I shall feel some alleviation of the reflection that their issue is likely to be so fatal to a man of transcendant genius.

‘I have the honour to be, sir, your most obedient servant,

‘J. B. BURGES.’

‘To Mr. Raymond.

‘Edinburgh, June 6th, 1802.

‘Sir,

‘I enclose to you a bank-note of ten pounds for poor Dermody ; and am, sir, your obedient servant,

‘MOIRA.’

‘To Mr. Raymond.

‘Merrion-square, June 29th.

‘Sir,

‘I am grieved at having been prevented from sooner acknowledging your letter with respect to Mr. Dermody ; and thank you for the communication, however disagreeable its nature is, which you have done me the honour of making. Assure Mr. Dermody of the sincere interest which I take in what concerns him ; of my sorrow at hearing that his health is so infirm ; and the warm and cordial wishes which I feel for his speedy and complete recovery, and success in life. Will you please to advance to him, for the present supply of his necessities, ten guineas on my account ? which I shall immediately transmit, on being advised by you that you have done so. Allow me also to request that you will write me without delay an account of Mr. Dermody’s state of health, and general situation ; and suggest such plans as may occur to you as the most eligible and practicable for his more permanent relief and advancement, to which I shall be very glad to contribute. Let him not despond. He has in England the patronage of my lord Moira. Here (on an inferior scale) I think, what between his own merit and my influence, a good deal can be done for him ; enough, if he have health and prudence, to place him beyond the want of any assistance,

and

and in some degree in the situation which his genius entitles him to hold. My father, who has seen your letter, and recollects Mr. Dermody with just esteem for his talents, will cordially join in endeavouring to contribute to his comfortable establishment. I have ceased to be solicitor-general, and am now a baron of the exchequer. My address is, Merrion-square.

‘ I hope soon to hear from you ; and have the honour to be, sir, your very humble servant,

‘ WILLIAM SMITH.

‘ P. S. I shall go the circuit on Monday. If you write to my father, he will communicate to me the contents of your letter. I mention his address: ‘ Right honourable the Master of the Rolls, Harcourt-street, Dublin.’

“ The above letters revived the broken spirits of Dermody, and for some time he appeared to have conquered his disorder. The generosity of these friends enabled him to procure necessities, and discharge many of the debts which had caused him so much uneasiness: though he was not altogether released from the importunities of his low associates; to whom, besides sharing with them the bounty of his benefactors, he had made over his half-pay for the term of three years. The letter from sir James Bland Burges gave him much pleasure: as he had himself previously written the following to that gentleman; and by not receiving any favourable reply to his solicitations, conceived he had given cause of lasting resentment.

‘ To sir James Bland Burges, bart.

‘ Sir,

‘ Whatever may have been my past errors and your just indignation, surely this will be softened by

the appeal of extreme sickness and extreme sorrow. For two months I have suffered the most racking torment from an asthmatic complaint, without medical (nay, without common) assistance. In a word, I am plunged in the deepest distress. O sir, my once great and good friend, do not suffer me to languish unnoticed, but exert yourself in my behalf! a very trifle would procure me much comfort, a trifle which by generosity could not be missed. I enclose a paragraph from the Mirror; of which I am proud, as it tells me the world still thinks me possessed and worthy of your protection.

‘ I am, sir, your obliged and grateful servant,

‘ THOMAS DERMODY.

‘ 10, Portpool-lane, Gray’s-inn-lane, 6th June, 1802.’

“ His satisfaction was no less on perusing the letter of his affectionate and early friend the honourable baron Smith. During some weeks he appeared in a state of convalescence: but being attacked by violent nightly coughings, and constantly importuned by his needy landlord, his spirits failed; he again sunk into his former melancholy; and to avoid demands which he could not satisfy, early in the month of July he fled from his wretched lodging; and without giving notice of the circumstance to any of those constant friends who under every difficulty had kindly assisted him, took shelter in a miserable cottage near the village of Sydenham in Kent; from which, when driven to the last dreadful extremity, he sent the author the following letter.

‘ To Mr. Raymond, 239, Piccadilly.

‘ My dear friend,

‘ You no doubt have been great-

ly surprised at my departure. I had neither time nor opportunity to relate my miseries. My poverty, and the importunities of my unfeeling landlord, compelled me to leave those abominable lodgings in Portpool-lane; and I cannot say I have changed for the better. Pray, my dear friend, write to lord Moira again: say I cannot live long, and it will be the last favour conferred on an unfortunate youth. I expect nothing but friendship from you at this fatal period, and therefore will not scruple to ask an extraordinary favour on *my death-bed*. I am in want of every thing; and in saying this, I need not tell you that the smallest assistance will give me comfort—I cannot live, and my last hours are full of misery. The favour I have to beg is, that you will call again upon Mr. Addington, and explain that you have seen me: say his last bounty is expended: he is generous; and though I do not deserve his kindness, I think you will not fail to move him.

‘ You will write me immediately, as, you perceive I employ another to write. Forget me not, my dear friend; I have troubled *you* long, but cannot much longer. God bless you!

‘ THOMAS DERMODY.

‘ 9th July.

‘ Direct to me at Mr. Lance’s, baker, Sydenham, Kent.’

‘ This letter, the last he ever wrote, unfortunately did not reach town for several days. On the 15th of July the author, accompanied by Mr. Allingham, went to visit him. They found him in a wretched hovel, leaning over a few embers which hardly gave warmth to his shivering and emaciated body, in a state of the deepest misery

and dejection. He had scarce power enough left to express the grateful sentiments which their visit inspired: the words faltered on his parched lips; his eyes became filled with tears; and being unable to give expression to the strong feelings which laboured in his breast, he sunk again into the melancholy position in which they had discovered him, and continued silent for a considerable time. These emotions having subsided, he endeavoured to relate the particulars of his unhappy situation; but was often obliged to pause, in order to gather sufficient strength to encounter the violent and oppressive cough which momentarily returned. The deserted appearance of the house, better calculated indeed for the retreat of a horde of robbers than the abode of a dying person; and the wretched poverty displayed in the few articles of furniture which it contained—(a few shapeless stools; some faggots of wood scattered on the floor, and a crazy bedstead without curtains, placed opposite a door which admitted through its crevices both the wind and rain)—added to the gloom which was observable on entering it, and the reflection that a human being was there struggling with a fatal disorder without either medical assistance, the comforts which sickness requires, or the necessities requisite for the mere support of nature, occasioned the most painful emotions in his two friends. When he had recovered a little from the agitation which their appearance had occasioned, he raised himself from the drooping posture in which for some time he had placed himself over the fire; and fixing on the author his sunk eyes, said, ‘ Thank God for this friendly visit! I thought I had given the whole

whole world, and you in particular, cause to forget me. I have deserved the severest censure; but do not now remember I have done so.' The caution was needless; his past errors were buried in the recollection of his present sufferings, and he had little to dread from the chidings of those who had now to perform only the few last offices of friendship. When his disorder allowed him to enter for a moment into conversation, he assumed a spirit which, though faint, was yet mingled with the eccentricity that had on almost every occasion marked his character, and which was equally observable on trivial and on important matters. While the author was stating to him some particulars which he imagined might be conducive to his comfort and recovery, Dermody broke suddenly from the conversation, and observing that Mr. Allingham had taken up a volume of *Hudibras* which lay on the table, said with a ghastly smile, 'You see I am merry to the last.' A violent fit of coughing succeeded this effort; when, with a presentiment of his approaching dissolution, he said: 'That hollow cough rings out my knell.'

"The comforts which his situation required and admitted having been ordered to be procured for him, his two friends went in search of a more comfortable and commodious lodging; which they speedily procured on the most delightful part of Sydenham-common, where he was to have a careful nurse, and to be removed the following day. Some money was now given to the landlord for his use: and having assured him that they would return the next morning and convey him to the apartments they had provided for him, his visitors took their

leave; not without a hope that their solicitude for his happiness, and the anxiety which they had expressed for his recovery, would have soothed his apprehensions, and secured him comfort during the tedious night. Their hopes however were vain, and their labours ineffectual. Dermody expired the same evening, at the age of 27 years and six months.

"The necessary orders having been given for his funeral (the expenses of which were defrayed by those distinguished persons who had so frequently administered to his wants while living), on the day appointed, his body, attended by Mr. Allingham and the author, with a few friends of the latter, was conveyed to the church of Lewisham: where, previously to its being consigned to its native earth, the funeral service, that last solemn awe-inspiring ceremony, was read with much dignity and fervor by the honourable and reverend Mr. Legge (the present dean of Windsor); who afterwards attended the body to a grave formed on a spot the most solitary and romantic that fancy could describe. Over his tomb, at the expense of his generous friends, the author has been enabled to erect a monument to his memory, with the following inscription, extracted from a poem written by the poet, entitled 'The Fate of Genius.'

'No titled birth had he to boast:
Son of the desert; Fortune's child;
Yet, not by frowning Fortune cross'd,
The Muses on his cradle smil'd.

'He joy'd to con the fabling page
Of prowess'd chiefs, and deeds sublime;
And e'en essay'd in infant age,
Fond task! to weave the wizard rhyme.

'And though fell Passion sway'd his soul,
By Prudence seldom ever won,
Beyond the bounds of her control,
He was dear Fancy's favour'd son.

'Now

' Now a cold tenant does he lie
Of this dark cell, all hush'd his song :
While Friendship bends with streaming
eye,
As by his grave she wends along ;

' On his cold clay lets fall a holy tear,
And cries, " Though mute, there is a poet
here."

" The character of this extraordinary youth has been so clearly developed in his actions and his writings, that scarcely any thing is left now to be related of his acquirements and general habits, that has not in some degree been already said in his history. Yet as there are shades of character, and degrees of passion, which do not prominently shew themselves in particular instances of conduct, the author is induced to add the following particulars, gathered from a long intimacy, a thorough knowledge of his disposition, and a close observance of the distinguishable propensities which degraded his genius, and retarded his progress to happiness and independance.

" He was of a middle stature, well formed, and of a spare habit of body; he had a comprehensive forehead, full dark eyes, strongly marked eye-brows, and a countenance expressive of genius, but tinged with reflection and melancholy. He was ungraceful in his deportment, slovenly in his person, diffident in his address, and reserved in his conversation; he had a simplicity and a modesty in his manner that created esteem and even respect: when irritated, he was rather sullen than passionate: yet quick and inconsiderate in his resentment, sacrificing his interest to the impulse of imagined wrongs, and the attachment of his best friends on the slightest grounds of ideal offence. His poetical powers may be said to have been intuitive, for some of his best

pieces were composed before he had reached twelve years of age; at which period he united in the full vigour of manhood, the strongest judgment and most unbounded fancy. His language, when he could be drawn into argument (which was always a hard task), was nervous, polished, and fluent. His classical knowledge (which was indeed wonderful, and is on every proper occasion displayed in his writings), added to a memory uncommonly powerful and comprehensive, furnished him with allusions that were appropriate, combinations that were pleasing, and sentiments that were dignified.

" He had an inquisitive mind, but could never resist the temptations which offered to seduce him from his studies. He was easily persuaded to forsake propriety; and paid as little regard to the character of his associates, as he did to the rules of prudence, the dictates of reason, or the opinion of the world; which last he at all times set at defiance. No one ever wrote with greater facility; his mind was stored with such a fund of observation, such an accumulation of knowledge gathered from science and from nature, that his thoughts, when wanted, rushed upon him like a torrent, and he could compose with the rapidity with which another could transcribe. On every occasion he discovers a clear judgment, a fancy filled with the richest ideas, and an intellect capable of delineating the grandest objects. He knew all the various shades of character; and a close observation of the world enabled him to describe the changes of human manners, and the involution of passions, with an energy that was pleasing, elegant, and instructive. His similitudes and his inferences are never spoiled by the glare

glare of false thoughts; and though carelessness may sometimes be discovered, yet by a peculiar propriety of expression, and a nice adaptation of epithets, this fault is not always discernible.

“There is scarcely a style of composition in which he did not in some degree excel. The descriptive, the ludicrous, the didactic, the sublime; each, when occasion required, he treated with skill, with acute remark, imposing humour, profound reflection, and lofty magnificence. He delighted to wander through the romantic pages of antiquity: and had the happy talent of imitating the natural dignity and manly style of his poetical ancestors, with an effect which always gave to his productions the air and grace of originality: though his period, his stanza, and his thoughts, were modelled on the poet whose path he intended to follow. But in the height both of his imitation and of his fancy, the wildest excursions of his muse, he never forgets to make Nature his guide; and it may with confidence be said that no poet at such an early (if at any) period of life, ever copied her with more truth, or more keenly touched the hearts of his readers when his subject required the slumbering passions to be brought into action.

“When the variety, the number, the beauty, and moral tendency, of his juvenile (they may almost be styled infantine) poems are considered; when their pretensions shall be examined, and their merits acknowledged; the follies of his youth will be forgotten or absolved; censure will be corrected with pity, while admiration is mingled with regret. What he had written before he arrived at the age of fourteen (portions of which have been laid before the reader in the course

of this work) will surely justify these opinions; and will at the same time create astonishment when it is added, that the poetry which he had already composed at that period, would fill ten volumes of a moderate size. His translation of the *Epitaphium Damonis* of Milton, his *Monody* on the death of Chatterton, the *Ode to Fancy*, the *Hymn to the memory of Thomson*, the *Dirge on Fidele in Cymbeline*, the *Elegy on himself* (the last of which poems the reader has seen in the preceding sheets, and the others will form part of a future publication), with many pieces of equal merit, were produced before he had reached his twelfth year, and are monuments both of his learning and his genius. The early poems of Cowley, of Milton, and of Pope, bear no comparison with these; and will be found to possess less thought, less fancy, and less nature. In the cast of his mind he resembled the unfortunate Chatterton, and in his propensities the eccentric Savage: but in precocity of talent, and of classical information, excelled both them and every other rival; having in the first fourteen years of his life acquired a competent knowledge of the Greek, the Latin, the French, and Italian languages, and a little of the Spanish. Like Savage, he would participate in the pleasures of the lowest company; but had not the same eagerness after money, nor the same effrontery in demanding it of his friends: and notwithstanding Dermody's insatiate desire for liquor kept him in perpetual poverty, yet his applications for relief (though full of lamentations) were never degraded by meanness or fulsome adulation; nor did ingratitude, in his worst excesses, ever sully his character through life. Savage however did not

not refuse by such means to indulge his low debaucheries, and gratify passions which were mean, selfish, and revengeful. No one was more greedy of fame than Savage, or paid more regard to the correction of his works; yet he often sunk the noble spirit of the poet, by praising at one time without sincerity what at another he would ridicule without decency; by flattering him at one time without discrimination, whom at another he would wound without a cause; and at all times valued friendship only as it could be rendered subservient to his wants, conducive to his pleasures, or propitious to his dissipation. Dermody had a nature in some degree opposite to this; and only resembled Savage in his genius, in his misfortunes, and in his habits of living. He was as heedless of fame, as he was indifferent to the reception which his writings might meet with from the public: he seldom corrected his works, but dismissed them with as little ceremony as he would shew to a lecturer on prudence, a stranger who had called to borrow money, or an acquaintance whom he never wished to meet again. The rich blossoms of his genius, from the first moment when they were

discovered 'wasting their sweetness on the desert air,' expanded and flourished under the cherishing influence of liberal and exalted patronage, and the nutritious warmth of admiration and encouragement: but the instability of his temper never suffered them to fasten in the rich soil to which they had been transplanted; and by an unhappy fatality of conduct his 'bud of hope' (like Shakspeare's violet, 'sweet but not permanent') bloomed but to perish. Had he qualified those errors which hurt only himself; had his ambition kept pace with the encouragement which he received; had he studied and pursued moral with the same ardour as poetical propriety; had his regard for character and decorum equalled his poverty and his love of dissipation; he might have lived to be the admiration of the great, the wonder of the learned, and the ornament of society; science might have smiled upon his labours, fame might have proclaimed his excellence, and posterity with delight would record his name: but mistaking the way to happiness he plunged into misery, and fell an early victim to imprudence."

LIFE OF GIRALDUS DE BARRI.

[From Sir RICHARD HOARE'S TRANSLATION of Archbishop
BALDWIN'S ITINERARY.]

"GIRALDUS DE BARRI, distinguished by the name of Cambrensis, or the Cambrian, was descended from an illustrious lineage, being the fourth son of William de Barri, a person of high distinction, by Angharad, daughter of Nest, who was the daughter of

Rhy's ap Theodor Prince of South Wales. He was born about the year 1146, at the castle of Manorbier in Pembrokeshire, and at a very early age shewed strong marks of literary talents, and an earnest desire to dedicate himself to offices of religion. Whilst his brothers and their

and their companions amused themselves with tracing fanciful figures on the sands, he was occupied in drawing churches and monasteries. His father, admiring these marks of his youthful propensity, predicted his future progress in learning, decided in his own mind on giving him the advantages of a learned education, and in joke used to call him his little bishop. At a time when the country was alarmed by an hostile invasion, and the youths of the castle rushed forth to arms, the boy Giraldus burst into tears, and requested to be carried into the church as a place of safety; thus, to use his own words, 'with a wonderful foresight for his age, declaring the peace and privileges of the house of God.' All those who heard him were much astonished that he should expect to find more security in a retired church, than in a castle strongly fortified, and well garrisoned with soldiers.

"Associating with his brothers and their companions, who were educated in the military profession, Giraldus had little opportunity of applying his mind to study, until his uncle, David Fitzgerald bishop of Saint David's, hearing of his character and natural inclination, drew him from the paternal roof, and undertook the care of his future education. He seems, however, at first to have made but little progress; for two masters to whom he was consigned, repeatedly jeered him for his slowness and ignorance in declining the Latin words *durus*, *durior*, *durissimus*, and *stultus*, *stultior*, *stultissimus*. These rebukes made so considerable an impression on the young scholar, that, actuated more by a sense of shame than by discipline, he applied with such assiduity to his literary pursuits that he soon surpassed all his fellow stu-

dents. To complete his education, he went to Paris, where he remained for three years, gave lectures on rhetoric and the belles lettres, and was pointed out by the doctors of the university as a pattern to the young men of his age.

"On returning to England, about the year 1172, he entered into holy orders; and having obtained preferment both in England and Wales, and thinking himself '*non sibi sed patriæ natus*,' he devoted his whole mind and abilities to the public good, and strenuously endeavoured to promote the interests of his church. Observing, however, that, owing to the negligence of the prelates of the diocese of Saint David's (most particularly in the districts of Pembroke and Cardigan), the church did not receive its dues, and that the Welsh paid no tythes either in wool or cheese; he went to Canterbury, and having stated his complaints to Richard the archbishop, was appointed his legate in Wales, for the purpose of rectifying these and other abuses. He executed this commission with great spirit and success; and excommunicated, without distinction, those who refused to pay their tythes. All but the men of Ros, or the Flemings, readily paid their tenths, and in revenge for their non-compliance, the Welsh plundered their farms, and took away their sheep. Amongst those who resisted the demands of the clergy, was one William Karquit, governor of the province of Pembroke, who being jealous of the newly acquired office of Giraldus, took away forcibly from the priory at Pembroke eight yoke of oxen, and drove them to his own castle. Three times he was requested to restore them, and as often refused; at last, being threatened with excommunication, he replied

plied 'The legate may, indeed, be proud and malicious, but I think him not bold enough to excommunicate the constable of the king in his own castle.' He was then informed, that on hearing the bells of the monastery sound three times, he might rest assured that the sentence of excommunication had been passed. When the messenger returned, the monks and clergy were summoned together; the legate, in the most solemn manner, passed sentence of excommunication, and the bells (as is usual on similar occasions) confirmed it with their peals.

"He likewise attempted to reform the morals of the clergy, and was peculiarly severe against all priests who had wives, calling them concubines, and insisted upon their dismissal. On entering the diocese of Saint David's in the character of legate, he found at Brecknock an old archdeacon cohabiting publicly with his concubine. Mild entreaties to remove her from his house being ineffectual, he endeavoured by his own authority, sanctioned by the primate, to gain the desired end; but his remonstrances being answered by insolent reflections on the archbishop, Giraldus immediately suspended him from his ecclesiastical benefices, and delivered up to the archbishop (whom he had so contumeliously treated, and whose authority he had spurned) both his archdeaconry and prebendary. Having completed his legation, he visited the archbishop in company with the bishop of Saint David's, who, at the request of the former, promoted Giraldus to the vacant preferment, assigning to the old incumbent a sufficient maintenance for the remainder of his life.

"In discharging the duties of his new dignity of archdeacon, he act-

ed with great rigour, and was involved in frequent disputes and quarrels, in which, according to his own account, he was always in the right and always victorious. He had an early opportunity of asserting, in a very singular manner, the dignity of his own archdeaconry, as well as that of the metropolitan see of Saint David's. Having been settled only a few days in his residence at Landeu, near Brecknock, after a very laborious journey he had taken to correct the abuses that prevailed in the provinces of Melyenith and Elven, he was surprised by the appearance of two clergymen, sent in a great hurry by the dean and chapter of that district, to inform him that Adam bishop of Saint Asaph was coming to dedicate the church of Keri, (which was situated on the confines of the two bishoprics, but of old had appertained to that of Saint David's,) and that unless the archdeacon appeared there in person, nothing would prevent his taking possession of that church, or even the entire province; and they intimated likewise, that if no obstacles intervened, he intended to seize the whole territory between the rivers Wye and Severn, comprehending the districts of Melyenith and Elven. However harassed by his late expeditions, and dissuaded by his former companions and followers, who, more through fear of danger than fatigue, refused to accompany him; he, nevertheless, immediately proceeded on his journey towards the church of Keri. On the Saturday he dispatched messengers to two princes of that country, Eineon Clyd and Cadwallon, requesting them to send some trusty men of their families, provided with horses and arms, to assist him (if necessity required) in asserting the rights of the church

of Saint David, as the bishop of Saint Asaph was reported to be attended by a strong body of men from Powys: he slept that night at Llanbist, and on coming to Keri early on Sunday morning, found that two of the clergy, and partisans of the bishop, had concealed the keys of the church: these being at length found, the archdeacon entered the church, and, having ordered the bells to be rung, as a token of possession, he celebrated mass with great solemnity. In the mean time messengers arrived from the bishop, ordering preparations to be made for the dedication of the church. Mass being concluded, the archdeacon sent some of his clergy, attended by the dean of the province, to inform the bishop, 'That if he came to Keri as a neighbour and a friend, he would receive him with every mark of hospitality; but if otherwise, he desired him not to proceed.' The bishop returned for answer, 'That he was coming in his professional capacity as bishop of the diocese, to perform his duty in the dedication of the church.' The archdeacon and his clergy met the bishop at the entrance to the churchyard, where a long dispute arose about the matter in question, and each asserted their respective rights to the church of Keri. To enforce his claims the more, the bishop dismounted from his horse, placed his mitre on his head, and taking up his pastoral staff, walked with his attendants towards the church. The archdeacon proceeded to meet him, accompanied by his clergy, dressed in their surplices and sacerdotal robes, who, with lighted tapers and up-raised crucifix, came forth from the church in processional form: at length each began to excommunicate the other; but the archdea-

con having ordered the bells to be rung three times as the usual confirmation of the sentence, the bishop and his train mounted their horses, and made a precipitate retreat, followed by a great mob, and pelted with clods of earth and stones. This resolute conduct of the archdeacon gained him the approbation of all present, and even of the bishop himself, who was a fellow-student with him at Paris.

"The controversy at Keri being thus happily terminated, Giraldus went to the king at Northampton, and related what had passed between him and the bishop of Saint Asaph, who claimed a parish belonging to the church of Saint David, and which, in fact, at that time (the see being vacant) had lapsed to the crown. The king commended the archdeacon's conduct in resisting the claims of the bishop, and excited a general laughter by telling the story to his courtiers who were at that time assembled.

"Another circumstance will prove his steadiness in the perseverance of his religious duties. Some of his parishioners at Nangle expected absolution on a certain day from the sentence of excommunication that had been passed upon them, for having combined with the men of Rôs in refusing the demand of tenths due to the church. On the preceding night he slept at Carew: the following day was so boisterous and stormy that the bishop of Saint David's, who accompanied him, strongly advised Giraldus to postpone his journey; but he replied, 'That, on such an occasion, delays would be dangerous; for those who had been excommunicated were expecting absolution, and had promised amendment:' and added, 'that when business demanded attention, it was un-

manly

manly to watch the state of the weather upon dry land ; and that such a precaution was only allowable to those who had a sea voyage to undertake.’

“On the death of his uncle, David Fitzgerald, the canons of Saint David’s met in council, and, after a long debate, proclaimed Giraldus his successor ; but the archdeacon thinking this election made too hastily and inconsiderately, and not according to the usual forms, went on the following morning to the chapter, and, contrary to the advice of all who were present, renounced the episcopal honours that had been offered to him : for it was not customary to proceed on a new election until the death of the former bishop had been publicly announced, and a previous application made to the king, or his justiciary, and the royal assent obtained. The chapter however persisted in their choice, which so highly displeased king Henry, that he threatened to dispossess them of their lands and revenues. He summoned a council, and submitted the case to the consideration of Richard archbishop of Canterbury and his suffragan bishops, desiring them to recommend a fit person to fill the vacant see : they unanimously recommended Giraldus, as a man of learning and spirit : but the king objected, saying, ‘ That it was neither expedient or necessary to elect too upright or active a man to the vacant see of Saint David’s, as such a choice might prove detrimental to the cathedral church of Canterbury, or even to the crown of England.’

“At the dissolution of the council, the king confessed to the archbishop, and to a few of his confidential servants, that although he entertained a very high opinion of

the talents and integrity of Giraldus, yet he thought it not safe to place a person so nearly related to Prince Rhys, and to almost all the nobility of Wales, at the head of the see of Saint David’s ; and that the pride and pretensions of the Welsh would be heightened by the promotion of so able, worthy, and resolute a man. When this conversation was repeated to Giraldus by Roger bishop of Worcester, he exclaimed, ‘ That such a public testimony, and given in such a place of audience, was more honourable to him than the best bishopric.’ Giraldus, unwilling to persist in opposition to the will of the king, and the canons wishing not to run the risk of losing their benefices, abandoned their claims, and a new election was made in the presence of the king at Winchester, when Peter de Leia, a monk of the order of Clugny, and prior of the monastery of Wenloch in Shropshire, was unanimously chosen, at the recommendation of the king, and took possession of the episcopal see of Saint David’s.

“At the conclusion of this business Giraldus returned to Paris, with a view of applying himself to the study of belles lettres : and, to use his own expression, “to raise the walls of the canon law on the foundation of the arts and literature.’

“He dwells with great rapture, and with no inconsiderable share of vanity, on the prodigious fame which he acquired by his eloquent declamation in the schools, and speaks of the crowded audiences of the doctors and scholars, who were unable to decide, whether the sweetness of his voice, the beauty of his language, or the force of his arguments, were most worthy of admiration : they were so fasci-

nated,

nated, he adds, with his oratory, that they hung, as it were, suspended on his mouth, and were never fatigued with the most prolix or tedious discourse.

“After a long and studious residence at Paris, Giraldus returned to England; and on his journey through Flanders was present at a tournament given in the city of Arras, by Philip count of Flanders. Landing safely in England, he proceeded to Canterbury, where, by invitation, he dined with the prior and monks of that place. On this occasion he takes an opportunity of inveighing severely against their luxurious mode of living: he says, ‘their tables abounded with numerous and savoury dishes, and with such a variety of the choicest wines, that ale and beer were not allowed to be introduced.’

“From Canterbury he continued his journey to London, and paid a visit to Richard the archbishop of that see, at his villa, where he was entertained with gratifying marks of hospitality. On the following morning he received advice by a messenger, that a separation was on the point of taking place between his sister and her husband, who resided in the diocese of Winchester; upon which he most earnestly beseeched the archbishop to permit him to make use of his authority in staying the proceedings, and to put no bar to a reconciliation, provided he could by any means effect it. Having obtained the archbishop’s consent, as well as letters, he hastened to Southwark, where he found a numerous chapter assembled, and his sister and her husband standing before Richard Toclif bishop of Winchester, in expectation of the divorce, which was on the point of being

granted. The bishop instantly recognized the archdeacon, and, being much surprised at the sudden appearance of a person whom he imagined at that time to have been in France, embraced him, and placed him at his side. When Giraldus presented to him the official letters of the archbishop, he courteously replied—‘That if the archdeacon had appeared alone, and unbacked by such high authority, he would have paid a ready and willing attention to his petition.’ By his unexpected arrival the chapter was dissolved, and, by his friendly interference, a perfect reconciliation took place between his sister and her husband.

“On his return to Wales he found the diocese of Saint David’s in a state of great confusion, the bishop (Peter de Leia) having been obliged to quit his episcopal residence, owing to some disputes that had arisen between him and the Welsh. By the advice of the archbishop, Giraldus was appointed administrator of all the spiritual and temporal concerns of the church, which he conducted with great prudence and moderation for a considerable time, until the bishop, who had retired to some convent in England, very improperly interfered at Saint David’s, by suspending some persons and excommunicating others, without any previous trial; upon which Giraldus resigned the ecclesiastical charge committed to him, and, by the archbishop’s interest, caused the sentences of suspension and excommunication which had been so unjustly passed, to be annulled. He was so irritated at the bishop’s conduct, that at first he determined, by an accusation before the court of Rome, to procure his deposition; but by the interference of their mutual friends, peace

was at length re-established between them, and the archdeacon's lands at Landeu and Mathrey were restored to him.

"The fame of Giraldus increasing daily, he was induced by king Henry the second to reside at the court, where he continued for some time, though, he says, with great reluctance; the life he there led being ill adapted to a studious and literary man like himself. About this period he was deputed as a pacificator to Wales, and, after having effectually fulfilled his commission, returned to court, where he was graciously received by the king, who appointed him his chaplain, and made him repeated promises of high preferment in the church, which, however, were never carried into execution. Henry strongly commended him in council, and testified the greatest approbation of his good conduct, modesty, and fidelity; saying, 'that had he not been born in Wales, and so nearly allied to its princes and chieftains, and especially to prince Rhys, he would have loaded him with ecclesiastical benefices, and preferred him to the highest honours.'

"It happened about this time that by an order from the king, Rhys ap Gruffydh was summoned to hold a conference with Baldwin, archbishop of Canterbury, and Ranulf de Glanville, chief justice of England, at Hereford. When seated at dinner in the house of William de Vere, bishop of that see, and Walter, son of Robert, a noble baron, both of whom were descended from the family of Clare; Giraldus, the archdeacon, approached the table, and standing before them, thus facetiously addressed himself to prince Rhys: 'You may congratulate yourself, Rhys, on being now seated be-

tween two of the Clare family, and whose inheritance you possess:' for at that time he held all Cardiganshire, which he had recovered from Roger earl of Clare. Rhys, a man of excellent understanding, and particularly ready at an answer, immediately replied, 'It is indeed true, that for a considerable length of time we were deprived of our inheritance by the Clares; but as it was our fate to be losers, we had at least the satisfaction of being dispossessed of it by noble and illustrious personages, not by the hands of an idle and obscure people.' The bishop, desirous of returning the compliment to prince Rhys, replied, 'And we also, since it has been decreed that we should lose the possession of those territories, are well pleased that so noble and upright a prince as Rhys should be at this time lord over them.'

"In the year 1185 he was appointed by king Henry preceptor to his son John, whom he accompanied to Ireland as secretary, and in that situation gave such satisfaction, that the prince offered him the Irish bishoprics of Fernes and Leighelin, and on his refusing each of them separately, the prince proposed to consolidate them into one, provided he would accept them; but to this proposal Giraldus replied, 'If I could improve and exalt the church of Ireland, I would willingly accept the proffered honour; but since that cannot be expected, I had rather continue a private person, than be raised to a high station in which I can be of no service.' He likewise refused at this or a subsequent period the archbishopric of Cashel. During his residence in Ireland he was assiduous in collecting materials for his two works, the 'Topography,' and

and 'Conquest of Ireland;' and when John, after some months residence in that country, returned to England, Giraldus still continued there to complete and digest his collections. He likewise distinguished himself greatly by preaching before the archbishop of Dublin; and in his discourses he strongly recommended sobriety, abstinence, and continence, and as usual inveighed bitterly against the dissolute lives of the clergy. On his return to England, he was indefatigable in composing, revising, and correcting, his work on the Topography of Ireland; and when finished, was anxious to submit it to the public. 'Being desirous,' he says, 'not to put a lighted candle under a bushel, but to place it in a candlestick, where it might give light, I determined to recite my work before a public audience at Oxford, where the clergy were most distinguished for their talents and learning. I accordingly recited for three successive days the three chapters into which the book is divided. On the first day, I entertained with hospitality the poor people of the town; on the second, the doctors of the different professions, and the students of the greatest celebrity; and on the third, the remainder of the scholars, with the burghers and militia of the city. Such a magnificent and sumptuous festival revived the ancient times of classic poetry, and was wholly unknown in England either in the past or present age.'

"In the year 1187, king Henry, with many of his nobility, engaged themselves in the crusading expedition, which at that time was preparing throughout Europe, and Baldwin, archbishop of Canterbury, was sent on this holy and enthu-

siastic mission into Wales; Ranulphus de Glanville, chief justice of the realm, accompanied him, and at Radnor they were met by Rhys ap Gruffydh, and by many illustrious chieftains of the country. The archbishop explained to them, and the multitude, the object of his mission, and Giraldus was the first person who took the cross; Peter de Leia bishop of Saint David's, and many others, followed his example, and enlisted themselves under the consecrated banners. The archbishop and archdeacon were equally strenuous in their endeavours to gain proselytes; but the oratory of the latter prevailed more successfully than the high name and authority of the former. The effect produced by his discourse at Haverford was so great, that the archbishop oftentimes during his progress confessed that he never before on one day was witness to so much shedding of tears. At the conclusion of the sermon, near the bridge of Aberteivi, or Cardigan, where prince Rhys and a numerous concourse of people attended, a person by the name of John Spang thus addressed the prince: 'You ought, indeed, to entertain a high opinion of this archdeacon, your son-in-law, for he hath this day enlisted a hundred men or more in the holy cause; and if he had spoken to the people in the Welsh language, I doubt if even one out of the whole number of your attendants had remained unenlisted.' Giraldus compares the effect of his exhortations to those made by Saint Bernard, who preached the word of God to the Germans in the French tongue, and miraculously converted his hearers, although they neither understood a word of what he uttered, nor even required

an interpretation. He insinuates that God assisted his pious endeavours, and relates a saying of some of his auditors, who at the conclusion of his discourse thus addressed him: 'The Holy Spirit hath this day truly manifested relief in your mouth.' King John is also said to have bitterly reproached Giraldus for draining his county of Pembroke of men, by persuading such numbers to take the cross and repair to the Holy Land. But although thus zealous and successful in preaching the cause of the crusade; yet on the death of king Henry, at whose instance he had taken the cross, he applied to the cardinal legate, John of Anagni, on behalf of himself and Peter de Leia bishop of Saint David's, for absolution from the vows which each had made to go to the Holy Land; and which they obtained on the plea of age and poverty, but on condition that they should attend to the reparation of the cathedral church at Saint David's, and give every assistance in their power to the crusaders who undertook the journey to Jerusalem.

"To the enthusiastic zeal, that once animated the breast of the archdeacon, we owe the present Itinerary through Wales, of which a translation is now, for the first time, submitted to the public, and which, amidst a multitude of idle stories and monkish legends, contains many curious and interesting particulars relative to the topography and history of that principality.

"During this journey Giraldus gained the good graces of the archbishop: that prelate highly praised his works, and strongly recommended him to the king; but Henry persisted in his resolu-

tion of not advancing him to any high preferment in the church.

"In the year 1189, Giraldus attended king Henry on his military expedition into France, as did also Baldwin the archbishop, and Ranulph Glanville the justiciary. On his return into England after the death of that monarch, which took place in the same year, the following adventure befel him, which he used frequently to relate when the various fortuitous events that had happened to him became the subject of conversation. Finding, on his arrival at Dieppe, the wind unfavourable for his passage, he agreed with the soldiers, his companions, to leave their baggage behind them at that place, and to hasten their journey towards the sea-coast of Flanders, hoping by that means to effect a more speedy passage. The king, with some of his nobility, and many other persons, had fallen a sacrifice to the unhealthiness of the climate, and all the attendants of the archdeacon (one boy excepted) had either returned home ill, or had died abroad. Leaving this boy with his horses and luggage at Dieppe, he hired a stranger, whom he had never seen before, as his valet, and intrusted him with the care of all his valuables. In the morning, having crossed the river at Dieppe, and ascended a hill from whence they had a prospect of the town and harbour; according to the custom of travellers they began to inquire of each other if they had left nothing behind them; upon which Giraldus found his new servant missing. Having waited for him a long time, but in vain; the archdeacon became uneasy, because, as a stranger, he could place no confidence in him; and he recollected that the man had said, that

if

if he did not engage in his service, he should go to his brother in Hungary. The soldiers advised Giraldus to go back to Dieppe or Rouen, where he had first seen him; but despairing of ever finding him again if he had absconded, he could not be prevailed upon to return. His companions hearing that besides the sum of forty marks in gold and silver, and a good saddle-horse, the servant had the charge of all the archdeacon's clothes, a bag of important letters from earl Richard, and the unpublished Journal of his Itinerary through Wales, still more strenuously urged his return; but the archdeacon could not be persuaded to leave them. Arriving at the town of Abbeville, Giraldus retired to his apartment, reflecting seriously on the adventure which had happened; and he used to say, that on this occasion he had three motives of regret:

“First—The loss of his money was something, but moderate when compared with his other losses; for money was oftentimes lost, and oftentimes recovered.

“Second—The loss of the earl's letters, and of his own appointment as legate in Wales, was still greater; but as he knew the purport of them, he could by similar letters from the justiciary obtain some kind of redress.

“Third—The loss of his journals was by far the most severe, and indeed irreparable, the book not being as yet published, *non edito, sed edendo.*”

“After many melancholy reflections on the subject, he returned to his companions in the hall, where a boy came running in from the market-place, inquiring what sort of a horse was that of the archdeacon's; having gained the neces-

sary information, he said that he had seen a person riding such a horse, laden with a large package, in the market-place, and inquiring for the archdeacon's lodgings. He was immediately sent for, and received with general satisfaction. Giraldus asked him, ‘if all was safe?’ to which he answered, ‘Yes:’ but the soldiers would not suffer him to explain the cause of his delay till after dinner, when he told them, that having crossed the river at Dieppe, he dismounted in order to tighten his luggage, when he found that a bag containing twenty marks or more had dropped, upon which he went back to seek it at the inn from whence he had set out; but his researches not being attended with success, he returned and crossed the river a third time, giving up all hopes of finding the package he had lost; when casting his eyes back on the pebbly shore which he had before passed, to his great surprise and joy he discovered the bag lying amongst the stones, rolled up in the state he had received it from his master, and untouched.

“From this adventure Giraldus draws the following moral: ‘That God oftentimes inflicts with heavy tribulations those whom he loves and guides; and at the moment when they are in the greatest distress, shows himself propitious and near at hand.’

“Arriving safely on the coast of Flanders, they obtained a favourable passage, and the archdeacon hastened his journey to London, where he found the boy whom he had left with his baggage at Dieppe. Having delivered the letters of earl Richard to the justiciary, he immediately proceeded into Wales, where he soon restored tranquillity to a country that had

been much agitated by the death of the late king. Shortly afterwards, the earl came to London, and was there crowned king : but his stay in England was not long, for soon after his coronation he returned into Normandy to meet Philip king of France, with whom he was engaged to undertake the crusading expedition to Jerusalem. Richard was so highly satisfied with the zeal and fidelity of Giraldus, that on his departure for the Holy Land, he appointed him coadjutor to William de Long Champ bishop of Ely, in the regency of his kingdom. But Giraldus did not improve this favourable opportunity, for he refused the bishoprics of Bangor in North Wales, and Landaff in South Wales, alleging as a motive for this refusal, his unwillingness to accept any situation that would divert him from his studies ; but, by his own avowal, he rather declined these promotions from the hopes of succeeding, on the death of the old and infirm incumbent, to the see of Saint David's. He records an anecdote of himself, alluding to his anxious desire to obtain that see, and to his repeated refusals of other bishoprics which had been offered to him. A priest, who was deranged in his mind, and who, following the court of the justiciary, was accustomed to amuse the young men by ludicrous and ridiculous sayings, feigned a conversation with Giraldus, 'Master Giraldus, will you accept of the bishopric of Guiseford?' 'No.' 'Will you accept the bishopric of Ossory?' 'No.' 'The bishopric of Leighelin?' 'No.' 'The archbishopric of Cashel?' 'No.' 'But do you choose the bishopric of Saint David's?' then replying, with a loud and clamorous voice, 'Yes!' he burst into a fit of laughter.

"Finding that all the royal pro-

mises of preferment on his attaching himself to the court were ineffectual, and that his services had not met with their due reward, he determined to quit the busy and tumultuous scene of life, and retire to some more tranquil situation, where he might prosecute his literary pursuits without interruption.

"Having collected all his books, he proceeded on another journey to Paris ; but hearing, on his arrival at the sea coast, that war had lately been rekindled between Philip king of France and Richard king of England, he altered his plans, and went to Lincoln, to study theology under William de Monte chancellor of that diocese, with whom he had formerly been acquainted at Paris. There he continued for the space of six years, prosecuting his studies with indefatigable ardour, and composing several of his literary works. During this period he was strongly advised (on the death of Peter de Leia, bishop of Saint David's, A. D. 1199,) to solicit from the king, whose family he had most essentially served, the vacant mitre ; but, unwilling to abandon the studious mode of life he had now adopted, he replied, 'That a bishop should be sought after, not seek ; and that, as he had a sufficient competency, he would not, for any consideration, quit his present state of ease and tranquillity.'

"About the same time he gave a conspicuous proof of his charity and disinterestedness in selling his best garments to relieve the necessities of the poor at Lincoln, who had suffered severely from a scarcity of provisions.

"On the death of Peter de Leia, the archdeacons and canons of St. David's, by the mandate of Hubert archbishop of Canterbury, proceeded

proceeded to nominate such persons as they thought fit to succeed to the vacant see ; and they recommended the following :—

“ Giraldus, archdeacon of Brecknock, — Walter, abbot of Saint Dogmaels, — Peter, abbot of Whitland ; and to these they added Reginald Foliot, that they might not appear designedly to exclude an Englishman from the ecclesiastical honour, and concluding at the same time that he had little prospect of success.

“ The archbishop positively refused to accept the nomination of Giraldus for the same reasons alleged by king Henry on many former occasions : and partly on the same grounds he rejected the other two, as being natives of Wales. To supply their places, he proposed Martin, a Cistercian monk, and Geoffrey, prior of Lanthoni ; but the chapter persisted in their long-established right of nomination. King Richard was at this time abroad, and hearing of the dispute between the canons of Saint David's and the archbishop of Canterbury, ordered a deputation of four members of the chapter to appear before him in Normandy, and receive his orders respecting the election of a bishop : but whilst these matters were in agitation, the king died.

“ Letters from the chapter of Saint David's, recommending Giraldus, were presented to his successor king John, and favourably received ; so much so, that the king ordered Giraldus to come before him with three or four canons of the church, that he might be duly elected bishop ; but, unfortunately for the archdeacon, on the king's return to England, the all-powerful influence of the archbishop

put a stop to the election. In a letter written about this time to Hubert archbishop of Canterbury, Giraldus complains bitterly of the ill treatment and vexation he had suffered from the court, and expresses a wish that he may be allowed to dedicate the remainder of his life to study and retirement.

“ ‘ Hitherto,’ says our author, ‘ I have unfortunately sacrificed too much time to fruitless ambition. Let me therefore be allowed to retire and indulge without further molestation my favourite pursuit of books and literature. Let others anxiously covet the high honours attached to a court, as I myself, labouring under the same vice, once did, and became an useless and unprofitable follower of it. Having more than sufficiently experienced the vicissitudes and vexations resulting from an attendance upon the high and mighty, I desire to be in that situation with respect to them, as if I had never been in their service. May the holy Father and merciful God grant, that, far from the cares and ambition of a court, which always wound, and never heal and satisfy the heart ; and far also from the clamorous bustle of the world, by lamenting and redeeming my heavy loss of time, I may be able to pass the moderate remaining portion of my life in peaceful ease and tranquillity !’

“ After the repeated disappointments he had received in the attainment of his favourite preferment, and seeing there was little or no prospect of success, he turned his back upon the English court ; and, after an absence of many years, revisited Saint David's, where he was received with the greatest joy, both by the clergy and the people. A

convocation was again held for the election of a bishop, and the votes were unanimous in favour of Giraldus, who was earnestly desired to go immediately to the court of Rome, and there to assert the rights of the metropolitan see of Saint David's, and to procure a ratification of his own election.

"On returning to Saint David's, after a short excursion into Ireland, he was informed that letters had been sent from the archbishop and justiciary to the canons of that church, summoning them to appear in England, and elect Geoffrey, prior of Lanthoni, to the vacant see. After a mature and considerate deliberation, the chapter dispatched letters on the appointed day to the bishops of London and Rochester (who during the absence of the archbishop abroad had been nominated his deputies), forbidding them to proceed in the election; and at the same time they sent other letters to the prior of Lanthoni and his fraternity of monks, ordering them, as members of the church of Saint David, not to interfere in this election.

"Giraldus having paid a visit to his brother, Philip de Barri, and explained to him the cause of his intended journey to Rome, proceeded to the abbey of Stratflur in Cardiganshire, where he deposited his library of books; from thence he journeyed over the Ellennith mountains towards Cumhir, and entered England near Keri. He embarked at the port of Sandwich in Kent, and landed in Flanders; from thence he traversed the Alps and Tuscany, and arrived at Rome about the festival of Saint Andrew. He was received by pope Innocent the third, with great kindness and condescension; he accepted the works which Giraldus presented to

him with this punning compliment: '*Præsentarunt vobis alii libras, sed nos libros,*' 'Others have presented pounds to your holiness, but I have presented books;' and expressed himself highly gratified with their perusal; yet he did not ultimately favour his suit. The archbishop opposed his promotion with great violence, and his competitor for the see of Saint David's had great success in a court where all things were venal. Giraldus, however, persisted in prosecuting his claim, and was involved in a tedious litigation of five years, by asserting the dignity and privileges of the church of Saint David's against the incroachments and demands of that of Canterbury. He took three successive journeys to Rome at a considerable expense; but was at last defeated in his hopes, for the pope passed a definitive sentence, and declared his election null.

"After the unfavourable decision made by the pontiff, Giraldus thus addressed himself to his eminence in full consistory: 'Thou knowest, O lord and father, that the cause I have had in hand is twofold: first, the cause of my own election; secondly, the cause of our metropolitan church. The validity of the one having, by thy will and judgment, been annulled, I pray and beseech your holiness that the other, on behalf of which I have undertaken so many laborious journeys to your court, may be allowed to follow its legal course.' 'And who,' replies the pope, 'will prosecute that cause?' 'I (says Giraldus); for although not the bishop elect, yet I am archdeacon as well as canon, and a legitimate not a spurious member of that church, and ready, with all my might, to rescue my mother and brethren

brethren from an unlawful state of servitude.' Upon which the bishop of Ostia, the liberal and open-hearted Roman, thus addressed the council: 'Now, indeed, it evidently appeareth, that the archdeacon is more strenuous in promoting the advantages of his church, than his own self-interest, and that he is more actuated by a sense of charity than of covetousness.'

"The right, however, of Giraldus to the bishopric was deemed so unquestionable, that he was usually called in Wales the bishop elect: and although he does not appear ever to have assumed that title himself, yet king John issued several mandates and letters against him for presuming to take upon himself that character. 'Know ye, that Giraldus, archdeacon of Brecknock, acts openly against our crown and dignity, considering himself as the bishop elect of Saint David's, though we have never assented to his election.'

"This long controversy continued above four years, during which time our author suffered many and very heavy persecutions, one of which I shall now relate.

"The resolute conduct of the canons of Saint David's, in asserting the rights of their church, was strongly supported by the reigning princes of North and South Wales: on the other side, the archbishop of Canterbury not only employed threats but also bribes, in order to soften the temper of the chapter: he sent them threatening letters from the king and justiciary, and, by means of one Osbert, caused gilt rings, costly garments richly ornamented with gold and ivory, and various other presents to be distributed amongst them; which at length had the desired effect. The abbot of Whitland, whom

Giraldus calls '*albius exterius quam interius, habitu quàm actu, nomine quàm omine*,' was the chief author of these corrupt intrigues, and infected the minds of the chapter of Saint David's. Still, however, the archdeacon persevered in a steady opposition to them, supported by the nobles of the country, and by all well-wishers to the church. On his return towards England from a journey through the wild districts of Cardiganshire, he met, on the mountains of the Cantref Bychan, a messenger who had been dispatched from his dean at Brecknock, to acquaint him that all the lands, both at Brecknock and Landeu, belonging to the see of Saint David's, and of which he had the management, had, by a precept of the justiciary, been seized by the servants of William de Braose, on behalf of the king. At Luel, he encountered a second messenger, informing him, that all his own lands and revenues would be shortly seized; and his friends advised him on no account to proceed, for the king's officers had threatened to throw into prison both him and his attendants, if they could lay hold of them. But the archdeacon, by no means alarmed at these tidings, proceeded on his journey homewards; when between the villages of Trallan and Aberyscir he met his own dean, by name Richard (who had been appointed his procurator in those parts), pale and trembling; and he confirmed to him by mouth, all the intelligence he had before communicated to him by letters and messengers. Still, however, Giraldus despising the mighty threats of his adversaries, persisted in his journey, saying to his companions, 'Have we not some good ale at home? Let us go and drink it before it be all gone.'

gone.' '*Nonne domi cerevisiam bonam habemus? Eamus ergo et bibamus eam, prius quam omnino fuerimus destituti.*' On arriving at Landeu, he found all safe and quiet at home; these premature alarms having arisen only from some threats disseminated in that neighbourhood by Reginald Foliot, and his accomplices.

"These disturbances and insults proceeded from the following cause: the justiciary being at Shrewsbury, attended by the barons of that country, heard a heavy complaint preferred against Giraldus, by Robert, bishop of Bangor; alleging that he had favoured the cause of his adversary Andrew, who, contrary to the will of the king, considered himself as bishop elect; and declaring in a public audience, that, not only on this, but on every other occasion, he had opposed the inclinations of the king; and he likewise added, that the archdeacon at this present time came into North Wales for the purpose of uniting Llewelyn and the princes of Powys with those of South Wales, and in short the whole country of Wales in a confederacy against the king. Upon the grounds of these false representations, the justiciary deprived Giraldus of all his benefices at Brecknock, and on his journey through Oxford, wrote to the archdeacon of that county, ordering him to do the same. 'Geoffrey Fitz-piers, earl of Essex, to his dearly beloved friend the archdeacon of Oxford, sendeth greeting: Know therefore that Giraldus archdeacon of Brecknock is the enemy of our lord the king, and therefore we command you to take into your hands all the benefices which he holds in your archdeaconry.' The justiciary also wrote letters to the abbot of Whit-

land, ordering him to consider Giraldus as an enemy to the king, and a rebel, to hold no intercourse with him, or to give any assistance in time of need; for during the many vexatious persecutions that Giraldus had experienced, he had often sought and found refuge within the convents of the Cistercian order.

"The abbot, unable totally to prevent the reception of Giraldus within the gates of the monasteries subject to him, and particularly that of Stratflur, where he had deposited all his most valuable books, and whither, during the tide of his heaviest persecutions, he had frequently retreated, gave orders that no respect should be paid to the archdeacon whenever he came; but that he should be received only in the public hall, amongst the noisy and vulgar guests. He ordered also, that neither monk nor lay-brother, nor even any servant belonging to the convent, should be allowed to conduct him, as a guide, over the wild and dreary tract of country, in which that monastery is situated; a mark of hospitality and kindness not denied even to the greatest strangers. The archdeacon, however, had shortly the means of fully vindicating his character from these unjust aspersions, and of disappointing the abbot of Whitland in his ambitious hopes of preferment. On being ordered by the justiciary to amend his conduct towards the king, and to hold no synod but in his own archdeaconry, he addressed him in the following spirited letter: 'I am much astonished that a man of your lordship's wisdom and discretion, the first counsellor of the kingdom and justiciary of the realm, should so readily have attended to the suggestions of enemies

mies during the absence of the adverse party, and be thus moved to anger ; for it is not usual, as you well know, to pronounce judgment upon the assertions of one party, whilst the other is absent. Believe me, I am not such a Sylvester (such a mere man of the woods), as from the misrepresentations of my enemies, you may be inclined to think me ; but that whenever a fit time and opportunity offer, I shall know how to exist within a court. I will therefore shortly come to you in England, prepared, through God's blessing, to refute, by true and solemn affidavits, the calumnies which have been trumpeted forth against me ; and furthermore to convince your lordship that even the words of bishops are not always to be received as gospel ; but that, on the other hand (when devoid of truth), they ought rather to be considered as profane.'

"Not finding the justiciary on his arrival in London, he followed him into Kent. About the same time a messenger came to the court from Llewelyn prince of Wales, who, upon inquiry, related faithfully to the justiciary every thing that had been done by Giraldus, assuring him, that by his influence with the prince and nobles of the country the royal cause had been greatly assisted. The justiciary was completely satisfied with this explanation, and had a long conference with Giraldus, concerning the state of affairs in Wales.

"The persevering contest in which Giraldus was engaged became a frequent subject of conversation both in England and Wales. At a time when Gwenwynwyn, son of Owen Cyveiliog, and prince of Powys, was assembled in council with the chiefs and nobles of his

land, and the labours of Giraldus were mentioned ; the prince said, 'Wales has indeed been accustomed to wage many and obstinate wars with England, but none so severe as that now carried on by the bishop of Saint David's elect, who, to maintain the dignity and rights of his country, hath not ceased by long and repeated exertions to molest the king, the archbishop, and the whole body of the English clergy and people. Our differences, should they last during the summer, are settled before winter, nor do they often extend beyond the term of a single year ; but this contest of Giraldus has continued incessantly for more than five.'

"The election of Giraldus to the vacant see of Saint David's being thus annulled by the court of Rome, he returned to England, and protested publicly against his three rival competitors. He objected to the abbot of Saint Dogmael, as being totally illiterate : to the abbot of Whitland, as being illegitimately born, and of a most ambitious disposition : and to Reginald Foliot, as being but just arrived at the age of manhood, and as a young man of most profligate character.

"On the day appointed for electing a bishop to fill the long vacant episcopal chair of Saint David's, Giraldus appeared at Lambeth ; and from thence paid a visit to the justiciary in Westminster, who accompanied him to the chapel of Saint Catharine, at which place the canons of Saint David's, and the clergy of the archbishop, were assembled ; for, according to the customs of the English monarchy, these elections were always made either before the king or his justiciary, and not in the presence of the archbishop.

"The

“The justiciary, calling Giraldus aside, endeavoured to dissuade him from nominating a Welshman to the vacant preferment, as during this tedious controversy they had shown themselves so adverse to his interest; and at the same time begged him to recommend some stranger of good character and reputation. The archdeacon readily assented; and that he might not appear to be actuated by self-interest, proposed two natives of Normandy; but the justiciary disapproving of this choice, desired him to think of two other fit persons residing in England, and who were better known to him. Having obtained leave from the justiciary, five or six of the canons of Saint David’s retired with the archdeacon, and endeavoured to persuade him to fix upon some member of their church, naming at first some canons, then some abbots, and lastly some priors, to all of whom Giraldus objected. They then mentioned Geoffrey de Henelawe prior of Lanthoni, as being a member of the church of Saint David’s, whom he also rejected; because he had always coveted this piece of preferment, and lived in the greatest intimacy with the archbishop.

“Being urged the next day by the justiciary, to nominate some other fit persons who resided in England, not in Wales; he proposed Roger, dean of Lincoln, and Walter Mapes, archdeacon of Oxford; at the same time desiring the justiciary to name some other candidates, who, though not Welshmen, were nevertheless acquainted with the customs of that country. The justiciary having proposed Hugh de Mapenor, dean of Hereford, and Walter Foliot, precentor of the same church (of whom Giraldus approved),

asked him why he objected to Geoffrey de Henelawe; upon which he stated the same objections he had before given to the canons of Saint David’s. The archbishop, as well as the justiciary, were interested in the promotion of this man, as the one wished to advance his physician, and the other his son-in-law, Henry de Bohun, to the priorate of Lanthoni, which would become vacant by the preferment of Geoffrey to the see of Saint David’s.

“The archdeacon could not at first be prevailed upon to listen to this nomination, but, during their procession to the chapter-house, revolving in his mind the abandoned state of corruption into which his church had fallen, and how useless and unprofitable a task it would be for him to encounter fresh troubles and dangers for its sake; considering also, that the person proposed had never openly professed himself to be his enemy, and moreover, was a member of their church; he suddenly changed his mind, and when the chapter was assembled, he thus publicly addressed its members:

‘I have hitherto sufficiently contended; I have very sufficiently, and not unprofitably, toiled in endeavouring to bring to life the long dormant and almost expired rights of our church; nor have I been deterred, by any obstacles, from prosecuting its welfare with the utmost diligence and activity: that I may not, therefore, appear to you in the light of a perpetual and obstinate opposer to your wills, I freely give my consent to the person now proposed, provided he meets with the approbation of our brethren, Maurice archdeacon of Cardigan, and the other canons.’

“Giraldus seeing with regret how little good faith and honesty existed

existed in the breasts of his brethren and canons, who, besides their numerous excesses, had so often proved themselves perjured to the church, thought it no longer honourable for him to remain a member of their society; upon which he went to the archbishop, with whom a perfect reconciliation had taken place, and revealing his intentions to him in the most confidential manner, requested him to use his interest with the bishop of David's, on behalf of his nephew, a young man, to whom he wished to resign his archdeaconry and prebendary. The archbishop at first hesitated, but afterwards consented, and procured the appointment of Philip de Barri to the preferment which his uncle Giraldus was desirous of resigning in his favour. Philip appears to have been the youngest son of his brother Philip de Barri, for whom Giraldus had the greatest affection. His father had bestowed upon him a literary education, and had on his death-bed beseeched his brother to advance him in the church, and to procure him the reversion of his own preferment. Thus Giraldus, both affectionately and essentially, complied with the wishes of his departed brother, by bestowing on his son a most ample revenue: he often most appropriately repeated to his nephew those lines of Virgil, in which the poet makes Æneas address his son,

‘Disce puer virtutem ex me, verumque
laborem,
Fortunam ex aliis.’

“He passed the last seventeen years of his life in Wales; employed in revising his former literary works, and in composing others, of which he has himself given a copious index. In the midst of these avocations, he received once more an offer of the bishopric of Saint David's, and was likely to meet with no opposition from the court; but from the dishonourable terms on which it was proffered, he refused the acceptance of that ecclesiastical dignity, which, during the greater part of his life, had been the object of his most earnest wishes.

“He died at Saint David's, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, and was buried in the cathedral church.

“Noble in his birth, and comely in his person; mild in his manners, and affable in his conversation; zealous, active, and undaunted in maintaining the rights and dignities of his church; moral in his character, and orthodox in his principles; charitable and disinterested, though ambitious; learned though superstitious;

“SUCH WAS GIRALDUS.

“And in whatever point of view we examine the character of this extraordinary man, whether as a scholar, a patriot, or a divine, we may justly consider him as one of the brightest luminaries that adorned the annals of the twelfth century.”

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF NATIONS.

SKETCH of the CHARACTER and CONDITION of the NATIVES of
TURON.

[From Mr. BARROW'S VOYAGE to COCHINCHINA.]

“ **I**N attempting to draw a very general sketch of the character of this nation, I am not unaware of the risk I incur of being drawn into error. To speak correctly of the manners and opinions of foreign nations; to trace the motives of their actions and the grounds of their prejudices; to examine the effects produced on the temper and disposition of the people by the civil and religious institutions; and to inquire into their ideas of moral right and wrong, their notions of taste, of beauty, of happiness, and many other subjects necessary to be investigated before a thorough knowledge can be obtained of their true character and real condition, require not only a long residence in the country, but an intimate acquaintance with all the various classes of society: and, after all, an accurate portrait is hardly to be expected. What can be more ridiculous than a Frenchman attempting to describe English manners, or more preposterous than a German dramatizing the English character? There are, however, certain strongly marked features which, prevailing in the mass of the people, may safely be set down as national

characteristics; and from such only the few observations I have to make on the Cochinchinese were derived. Some of them, indeed, might perhaps be entirely local, and applicable only to that part of the sea-coast on which we landed.

“ It is scarcely necessary to observe, what I apprehend is generally known, that Cochinchina, until a few centuries after the Christian æra, formed a part of the Chinese empire; and that the general features of the natives, many of the customs, the written language, the religious opinions and ceremonies still retained by them, indicate distinctly their Chinese origin. In the northern provinces, however, they are more strongly marked than in those to the southward. The same characteristics are likewise discernible, but in a fainter degree, in Siam, which is properly *Se-yang*, or the western country; in *Pe-gu*, probably *Pe-quo*, or the northern province; and in Ava and the rest of the petty states now comprehended under the Burmese empire, where, however, from an intermixture with the Malays of Malacca and the Hindoos of the upper and eastern regions of Hindostan,

dostan, the traces of the Chinese character are in many respects nearly obliterated. The Cochinchinese of Turon, notwithstanding the loose manners of the women, which I shall presently have occasion to notice, and the tendency which all revolutions in governments have to change, in a greater or less degree, the character of the people, have preserved in most respects a close resemblance to their original, though in some points they differ from it very widely. They perfectly agree, for instance, in the etiquette observed in marriage and funeral processions and ceremonies, in the greater part of religious superstitions, in the offerings usually presented to idols, in the consultation of oracles, and in the universal propensity of inquiring into futurity by casting of lots; in charming away diseases; in the articles of diet and the mode of preparing them; in the nature of most of their public entertainments and amusements; in the construction and devices of fire-works; in instruments of music, games of chance, cock-fighting and quail-fighting. The spoken language of Cochinchina, though on the same principle, is so much changed from the original as to be nearly, if not wholly, unintelligible to a Chinese; but the written character is precisely the same. All the temples which fell under our observation were very humble buildings; and we saw no specimens either of the heavy curved roofs, or of the towering pagodas, so frequently met with in China; but it seems there are, in many parts of the country, monasteries that are amply endowed, whose buildings are extensive and enclosed with walls for their better security. The houses in general near Turon bay consisted

only of four mud walls, covered with thatch; and such as are situated on low grounds, in the neighbourhood of rivers, are usually raised upon four posts of wood, or pillars of stone, to keep out vermin as well as inundations.

“The dress of the Cochinchinese has undergone not only an alteration, but a very considerable abridgment. They wear neither thick shoes, nor quilted stockings, nor clumsy satin boots, nor petticoats stuffed with wadding; but always go barelegged and generally barefooted. Their long black hair, like that of the Malays, is usually twisted into a knot and fixed on the crown of the head. This, indeed, is the ancient mode in which the Chinese wore their hair, until the Tartars, on the conquest of the country, compelled them to submit to the ignominy of shaving the whole head except a little lock of hair behind.

“On the precepts of Confucius is grounded the moral system for the regulation of the conduct in this country as well as in China. Here, however, to the exterior forms of morality very little regard seems to be paid. In China these precepts are gaudily displayed in golden characters in every house, in the streets and public places; but here they are seldom seen and never heard. Were they, indeed, repeated in their original language, (and they will scarcely bear a translation,) they would not be understood. Their conduct, in general, seems to be as little influenced by the solemn precepts of religion as by those of morality. The Cochinchinese are, like the French, always gay and for ever talking; the Chinese, always grave and affect to be thinking: the former are open and familiar, the latter close and reserved.

served. A Chinese would consider it as disgraceful to commit any affair of importance to a woman. Women, in the estimation of the Cochinchinese, are best suited for, and are accordingly entrusted with, the chief concerns of the family. The Chinese code of politeness forbids a woman to talk unless by way of reply, to laugh beyond a smile, to sing unless desired, and as to dancing, she labours under a physical restriction which makes this kind of movement impossible. In Cochinchina the women are quite as gay and as unrestrained as the men. And as a tolerable accurate conclusion may be drawn of the state of their society, from the condition in which the female part of it is placed, and the consideration in which the female character is held among them, I shall be more particular in describing the situation here assigned to them, in so far at least as our limited means afforded us the opportunity of observing, than on other points.

“In some of the provinces of China women are condemned to the degrading and laborious task of dragging the plough, and otherwise employed in various kinds of heavy drudgery. In Cochinchina it would appear likewise to be the fate of the weaker sex to be doomed to those occupations which require, if not the greatest exertions of bodily strength, at least the most persevering industry. We observed them day after day, and from morning till night, standing in the midst of pools of water, up to the knees, occupied in the transplanting of rice. In fact, all the labours of tillage, and the various employments connected with agriculture, seem to fall to the share of the female peasantry; whilst those in Turon, to the management of do-

mestic concerns, add the superintendence of all the details of commerce. They even assist in constructing and keeping in repair their mud-built cottages; they conduct the manufacture of coarse earthenware vessels; they manage the boats on rivers and in harbours; they bear their articles of produce to market; they draw the cotton wool from the pod, free it from the seeds, spin it into thread, weave it into cloth, dye it of its proper colour, and make it up into dresses for themselves and their families. Almost all the younger part of the males are compelled to enrol themselves in the army; and such as are exempt from military service employ themselves occasionally in fishing, in collecting swallows' nests and the *Biches de mer* among the neighbouring islands, as luxuries for the use of their own great men, but more particularly as articles of export for the China market; in felling timber; building and repairing ships and boats, and a few other occupations which, however, they take care shall not engross their whole time, but contrive to leave a considerable portion of it unemployed, or employed only in the pursuit of some favorite amusement: for they are not by any means of an idle disposition. But the activity and industry of the women are so unabating, their pursuits so varied, and the fatigue they undergo so harassing, that the Cochinchinese apply to them the same proverbial expression which we confer on a cat, observing that a woman, having nine lives, bears a great deal of killing. It is evident indeed, from the whole tenor of their conduct, that the men, even in the common ranks of life, consider the other sex as destined for their use; and those in a higher station,

station, as subservient to their pleasures. The number of wives or of concubines which a man may find it expedient to take is not limited by any law or rule; but here, as in China, the first in point of date claims precedence and takes the lead in all domestic concerns. The terms on which the parties are united are not more easy than those by which they may be separated. To break a sixpence between two parting lovers is considered, among the peasantry of some of the counties in England, as an avowal and pledge of unalterable fidelity. In Cochinchina, the breaking of one of their copper coins or a pair of chop-sticks between man and wife, before proper witnesses, is considered as a dissolution of their former compact, and the act of separation.

“ In China the men have sedulously and successfully inculcated the doctrine, that a well-bred woman should never be seen abroad; that she should confine herself constantly to her own apartments; that in the presence of even her nearest male relations she should not expose her neck and her hands, to prevent which her gown is buttoned up close to the chin, and its sleeves hang down below the knee: and so craftily have they contrived their precepts to operate, that the silly women have actually been prevailed on to consider a physical defect which confines them to the house as a fashionable accomplishment. Here, in this respect, there is a total difference with regard to the sex. So far from the Cochinchinese women being deprived of the free use of their limbs or their liberty, they have the enjoyment of both to the fullest extent. It certainly was not in Cochinchina where Eudoxus, in his Travels, is

said to have observed the feet of the women to be so small, that they might with propriety be distinguished by the name of the ‘ Ostrich-footed;’ *fæminis plantas adeo parvas ut Struthopodes appellantur*; as, by their bustling about with naked feet, they become unusually large and spreading; but the name might aptly enough be applied to the feet of the Chinese ladies, whose undefined and lumpish form is not unlike the foot of the ostrich.

“ Extremes often approximate. The same cause which in China has operated this total seclusion of the sex from society and the abridgment of their physical powers, has produced in Cochinchina a diametrically opposite effect, by permitting them to revel uncontrolled in every species of licentiousness. This cause is their being degraded in public opinion, and considered as beings of an inferior nature to the men. Thus situated, character becomes of little value either to themselves or to others; and, from all accounts, it appears they are fully sensible of its unimportance in this respect. The consequence of which is, that women of less scrupulosity, or men of more accommodating dispositions, are not certainly to be met with in any part of the world than those in the environs of Turon bay. It is to be hoped, however, that the general character of the nation may not exactly correspond with that which prevails at one of the most frequented of its sea-port towns. The singular indulgence, granted by the laws of Solon, of permitting young women to dispose of personal favours, for the purpose of enabling them to procure articles of the first necessity for themselves or their families, is sanctioned by the Cochinchinese without any li-

mitation as to age, condition, or object. Neither the husband nor the father seems to have any scruples in abandoning the wife or the daughter to her gallant. Not Galba, when he politely fell asleep, (as we are told by Plutarch,) for the accommodation of Mæcenas, and rebuked his servant for officiously rattling the plates in order to awaken him that he might see what was going on, could possibly have been more at ease than a Cochinchinese husband, to whom may justly be applied the following lines of Horace, wherein he describes the dissolute manners of the Romans:

‘Sed jussa coràm non sine conscio
Surgit marito; seu vocat institor
Seu navis Hispanæ magister
Dedecorum pretiosus emptor.’

‘The conscious husband bids her rise,
When some rich factor courts her charms,
And calls the wanton to his arms.
Then, prodigal of wealth and fame,
Profusely buys the costly shame.’

“These observations on the indifference, on the part of the men, for the honour and chastity of the sex, and the abandoned and profligate character of the latter which is the necessary consequence thereof, are by no means confined to the common people: they apply indeed more forcibly to the first ranks in society, the officers of government. These men, fully as debauched as the Chinese mandarins, carry not even that appearance of decency which those find it expedient to observe. Of the facility with which they are disposed to transfer their women to strangers our party had several curious instances. From the following, among many others, a tolerably good notion may be collected of the value put upon them in a pecuniary point of view.

An officer of the Lion was one day sent on shore to purchase a couple of bullocks for the use of the ship’s company. As the price had previously been fixed at ten dollars a-head, the officer had only to count down the money before one of the magistrates of the place, and receive his bullocks. The mandarin, taking up the dollars, dispatched a couple of his attendants, who shortly returned with a fine young girl, whom the magistrate handed over to the officer. Whether this gentleman’s modesty was too much shocked at so barefaced and indecent a transaction, or whether he had not a sufficient sum of money to make up the price of the bullocks, is immaterial to the purpose; it is enough to observe that he preferred his duty to the purchase of the lady, to the affected astonishment of the mandarin, of whom he understood her to be either the wife or the daughter. Another gentleman, returning one day from the town to the river-side, was accosted by an elderly woman, who made signs to him to follow her into her cottage, where she presented him with her daughter, very nearly in that state in which she came out of nature’s hands; and the eyes of the old lady sparkled with joy at the sight of a Spanish dollar.

“There was little prepossessing in the general appearance and character of the Cochinchinese. The women had but slender pretensions to beauty; yet the want of personal charms was in some degree compensated by a lively and cheerful temper, totally unlike the dull, the morose, and secluded Chinese. An expressive countenance, being as much the result of education and sentiment as a delicate set of features and a fine complexion are of health,

health, ease, exemption from drudgery and exposure to the vicissitudes of the weather, could hardly be expected in Cochinchina. In point of fact, both sexes are coarse featured, and their colour nearly as deep as that of the Malay; and, like these people, the universal custom of chewing areca and betel, by reddening the lips, and blackening the teeth, gives them an appearance still more unseemly than nature intended. The dress of the women was by no means fascinating. A loose cotton frock, of a brown or blue colour, reaching down to the middle of the thigh, and a pair of black nankin trowsers made very wide, constitute in general their common clothing. With the use of stockings and shoes they are wholly unacquainted; but the upper ranks wear a kind of sandals or loose slippers. As a holiday dress, on particular occasions, a lady puts on three or four frocks at once, of different colours and lengths; the shortest being uppermost. A woman thus dressed appears in the annexed print, which represents a group of Cochinchinese, and may be considered as a fair specimen of their general appearance. Their long black hair is sometimes twisted into a knot and fixed on the crown of the head, and sometimes hangs loose in flowing tresses down the back, reaching frequently to the very ground. Short hair is not only considered as a mark of vulgarity, but an indication of degeneracy. The dress of the men has little if any thing to distinguish it from that of the other sex, being chiefly confined to a jacket and a pair of trowsers. Some wear handkerchiefs tied round the head in the shape of a turban; others have hats or caps of various forms and materials, but most of them

calculated for protecting the face against the rays of the sun; for which purpose they also make use of umbrellas of strong China paper, or skreens of the leaves of the Borassus, or fan-palm, and other kinds of the palm tribe, or fans made of feathers. Consonant with the appearance of their mean and scanty clothing, as frequently thrown loosely over their shoulders as fitted to the body, were their lowly cabins of bamboo. In short, nothing met the eye that could impress the mind of a stranger with high notions of the happy condition of this people.

“There is, however, such a vast difference in the circumstances under which an European and the inhabitant of a tropical climate are situated, that the former, who for the first time finds himself among the latter, will be very apt to fall into error in attempting to form a comparative estimate of their respective conditions. To the one, fuel and clothing, and close and compact lodging are essential, not only to his comfort, but to his existence; to the other, fire is of no further use than a few embers to boil his rice, or to prepare an offering to his god. For splendid and massy fabrics neither his taste nor necessity incline him; and close thick clothing, so far from being a comfort, would be to him the most inconvenient of all incumbrances. Even the little which he occasionally finds it expedient to use, he frequently throws aside; for where nakedness is no disgrace, he can at all times, and in all places, accommodate his dress to his feelings and his circumstances, without offence to others or embarrassment to himself; an advantage which is denied to the European.

“Although we had neither expected to meet with an extensive

city nor magnificent palaces in the vicinity of Turon bay, yet as this spot was known to have been anciently the chief mart for the trade of this country with China and Japan, we felt rather disappointed on finding a few villages only, in the largest of which the number of houses did not exceed one hundred, and these chiefly thatched cottages. That it had suffered considerably from the late revolutions was evident from the ruins of larger and better buildings than any which now appeared, and from the inequalities of surface indicating a former existence of walls and forts, and which, by our officer's account who was taken prisoner, were still more visible and extensive at Fainfoo; from the remains, also, of gardens and plantations of fruit trees and flowering shrubs, that were now run into wildernesses: but no traces appeared to indicate former opulence, or convey the impression of fallen magnificence. It is true, the vestiges of Oriental cities, when suffered to fall into decay, soon disappear. Their best houses, limited to a single story, constructed generally of wood or of bricks that have been dried only in the sun, require an unremitted attention to preserve them from mouldering into dust. Their city walls, constructed of light and imperfect materials, soon crumble into heaps of ruins, and are buried under a rapid and vigorous vegetation. The system on which their city walls are built is but ill calculated for duration. The mass of loose earth heaped in the middle has a constant tendency to push out the brick or stone casing, which, tumbling into the ditch, is lost in a few years in the general surface. If the great and populous city of Pekin, the greatest and most populous perhaps

on the whole globe, should by any accident be deserted, many centuries would not be required to blot out every vestige of its situation. It is, therefore, the less surprising that, in the days of Alexander, all traces of the supposed magnificent palaces of Tröy had disappeared; and that the proud city of Babylon, once the mistress of the world, should for so many ages past have been laid prostrate in the dust.

“The cottages of Turon were in general snug and clean, and sufficiently compact to protect the inhabitants from the heat of the sun at one season, and the heavy rains at the other. There appeared to be no want in the market of either cotton or silk stuffs for clothing; and the country produced a great variety and abundance of articles, which contribute to the sustenance of the multitude, as well as to the luxuries of the higher orders of the people. Almost every kind of domestic animal, except sheep, appeared to be plentiful. They had small horned cattle, short-legged hogs, kids, and great abundance of ducks and fowls. They eat dogs as in China, and frogs are a common article of food. The sea as well as the land is a never-failing source of sustenance to multitudes who dwell on the coast. Beside a great variety of good fish, they eat at least three different species of the *Balistes*, and as many of the genus *Chatodon*; one of the latter of which, with its purple and yellow bandages and ocellated fin, is a very beautiful fish. The net is in common use, and so are wicker baskets, made like the wire mouse-trap, into which fish running to the bait are prevented from getting out again; and we observed them taking vast quantities of flying fish, by letting down into the sea deep earthen

earthen jars with narrow necks, baited with pork or the offals of fish. Most of the genera of marine worms, belonging to that class which by naturalists is distinguished under the name of *Mollusca*, are used as articles of food by the Cochinchinese; as, for instance, various species of the *Medusa*, *Holothuria*, *Actinia*, *Ascidia* and *Doris*; some of which, as the *Biches de mer*, usually called *Trepan*, (a species either of *Holothuria* or *Actinia*,) is caught and prepared as an article of luxury and commerce. All the gelatinous substances derived from the sea, whether animal or vegetable, are considered by them among the most nutritious of all aliments; and on this principle various kinds of *Algæ* or sea-weeds, particularly those genera which are known by the names of *Fuci* and *Ulvæ*, are included in the list of their edible plants.

“ In the populous islands of Japan the natives of the sea-coasts derive part of their sustenance from various kinds of sea-weeds, and from none more than that species of *Fucus* which is called *Saccharinus*. It would appear from Mr. Thunberg’s account of its leaves being used to ornament and embellish packages of fruit or other presents offered to strangers, that this plant is there in high estimation, being considered perhaps as the representative of those resources of sustenance which the sea so amply supplies to such nations as from choice or necessity may be led to avail themselves of its various productions. The *Chin-chou* jelly of China may probably be made, in part, of the *Fucus saccharinus*; for it would appear, from samples brought to England, that the leaves from which this jelly is made are taken from three or four distinct species of this extensive

genus. There is reason indeed to believe, that most of the species both of the *Fuci* and the *Ulvæ* might be employed for similar purposes. From the shores of Robben island, at the Cape of Good Hope, the slaves are accustomed to bring away baskets of a species of *Fucus*, whose leaves are sword-shaped, serrated, and about six inches long. These leaves being first washed clean and sufficiently dried to resist putrefaction, are then steeped in fresh water for five or six days, changing it every morning; after which, if boiled for a few hours in a little water, they become a clear transparent jelly, which, being mixed with a little sugar and the juice of a lemon or orange, is as pleasant and refreshing as any kind of jelly whatsoever. And as few countries perhaps can boast of a greater number of species of the *Fuci* and *Ulvæ* than are found on the coasts of the British islands, future generations may discover those nutritive qualities which many of them contain, and not limit the use of them as articles of food to a few species, which is the case at present; for excepting the *Esculentus* or *Tangle*, the *Saccharinus*, better known in Iceland than in Britain, the *Palmaris* or *Dulse*, which the Scotch say is not only rich and gelatinous but communicates to other vegetables with which it may be mixed the fragrant smell of violets, and that species of *Ulvæ* well known on the coast of Wales by the name of *Laver*, all the rest seem to be neglected.

“ But the *Chin-chou* of China, called more properly *Hai-tsai* or *sea-vegetable*, is not only used as an article of food, but is employed both in China, Japan, and Cochinchina, as a gummous or gelatinous substance, for giving additional

transparency to large sheets of paper or coarse gauze used for windows or lanterns. The latter, made sometimes of slips of bamboo crossed diagonally, have frequently their lozenge-shaped interstices wholly filled with the transparent gluten of the *Hai-tsai*.

“The Cochinchinese collect likewise many of the small succulent or fleshy plants, which are usually produced on salt and sandy marshes, as the *Salicornia*, *Atenaria*, *Crib-mum maritimum* or samphire, and many others, which they either boil in their soups or stews, or eat in a raw state to give sapidity to rice, which, in fact, is with them the grand support of existence. Of this grain they have the art of making a kind of vermicelli, usually called *Lock-soy*, which is perfectly transparent, and held on that account in high estimation both in Japan and China; to the latter of which it is exported in considerable quantity. It communicates to soup a gelatinous consistence, but at the same time preserves its form and transparency, qualities which would lead one to doubt if rice be the only ingredient in its composition. The Chinese *Lock-soy* is opaque.

“By the natives of warm climates animal food is seldom ranked among articles of the first necessity, and is sparingly used. And though fish is the common sustenance of those who inhabit the sea-coasts, yet rice made more gustable by a little salt, a pod of capsicum or pepper, or a leaf of some of the acridulous maritime vegetables above-mentioned, furnishes a grateful meal to the great mass of Oriental nations. All beyond this article and its accompaniments, even the areca nut and betel leaf, as well as opium and spirituous liquors, may be considered in the light of lux-

uries. Of rice, in Cochinchina, they are almost certain of two plentiful crops every year, one of which is reaped in April, the other in October. Fruits of various kinds, as oranges, bananas, figs, pine-apples, guavas, pomegranates, and others of inferior note, are abundantly produced in all parts of the country. They have very fine yams, and plenty of sweet potatoes. Their small breed of cattle does not appear to furnish them with much milk; but of this article indeed, like the Chinese, they make but a very sparing use, not even as food for their young children. These little creatures were very numerous in Turon, and appeared remarkably healthy; and till the age of seven or eight years were entirely naked. Their food seemed to consist chiefly of rice, sugar-cane, and water melons. The mass of people in Cochinchina, like the common Chinese, have but two meals in the day, one about nine or ten in the morning, the other about sunset; and these are usually taken, in the dry season, before the doors of their cottages, on mats spread in the open air. Where all fare alike, none feels ashamed to expose his humble meal.

“In the neighbourhood of Turon we observed several plantations of sugar-canes and tobacco. The juice of the former, having undergone a partial refinement, is exported to the China market in cakes, which in colour, thickness and porosity resemble the honey-comb; the latter is consumed in the country, as all degrees of every age and sex indulge in the habit of smoking. The face of the country exhibited, however, but feeble marks of tillage; and arts and manufactures were evidently in a languishing state. The cottages contained little

little furniture, and that little was rude in its construction, and as if intended only for temporary use. The matting which covered the floors was ingeniously woven in different colours; but the art of making mats is so common in all the nations of the East, that the most beautiful are scarcely subjects of admiration among themselves. Their domestic utensils consisted chiefly of an earthen stove, an iron pot to boil their rice, a pan of the shape of a watch-glass to fry their vegetables in oil, and a few porcelain cups or bowls. Their vessels of cast iron were equal in quality to those of the Chinese, but their earthen-ware was very inferior. They seemed to work in metals with a tolerable degree of neatness. The handles of the officers' swords were mostly of silver, and by no means ill finished; and their articles of fillagree were equal to those of the Chinese. In fact, both the one and the other possess quick and comprehensive talents, and, under due encouragement, are already in that advanced stage to make a very rapid progress in the arts, sciences, and manufactures. Under every disadvantage of a bad government, their ingenuity occasionally breaks forth in a surprising manner. The man at Canton who could make a watch at first sight had neither a weak head nor an unskilful hand.

“Their arts and manufactures did not, however, appear to be in a state of progressive improvement. There is in all the Oriental governments a radical defect, which no advantages of soil or climate or other favourable circumstances can compensate, and which must forever operate against their attaining the character and the condition of a great and happy people. This insuperable bar to their grandeur and

felicity is owing to the want of a permanent security to property. Where the right of inheritance is a weaker claim than the state of possession; where the hand of arbitrary power can at any time, without the forms of legal process, dispossess a man of the piece of ground on which the support of himself and his family wholly depends; where only the law of the strongest is acknowledged, and where neither person nor property has any effectual protection against the designs of the vindictive or the rapacious entrusted with power,—what possible encouragement can the subject have to build an elegant house, to improve the cultivation of his land, to aim at perfection in any branch of the arts, or to extend his ingenuity or his industry much beyond the mere supplying of the necessaries of life. An Oriental sage has observed, that the proof of a just government and a well-regulated police is, when a beautiful woman covered with jewels can travel abroad in perfect security. What would this sage have said of that government and that police, where a helpless and wealthy old woman, surrounded by a set of lusty and indigent servants, commits herself and her property to them and to the world with as much composure and confidence, as if her physical strength was not in the least inferior to theirs;—or, where the property of a still more helpless infant orphan is not only secured till he arrives at years of discretion, but cultivated and improved sometimes to the double of its original value? However strange such a relation might appear to an inhabitant of the eastern hemisphere, we have the satisfaction of knowing it to be strictly true in many parts of the western world,

and in none more so than on the highly favoured island of Great Britain.

“ That particular branch of the arts in which the Cochinchinese may be said to excel at the present day is naval architecture, for which, however, they are not a little indebted to the size and quality of the timber employed for that purpose. Their row-gallies for pleasure are remarkably fine vessels. These boats, from fifty to eighty feet in length, are sometimes composed of five single planks, each extending from one extremity to the other, the edges morticed, kept tight by wooden pins, and bound firm by twisted fibres of bamboo, without either ribs or any kind of timbers. At the stem and stern they are raised to a considerable height, and are curiously carved into monstrous figures of dragons and serpents, ornamented with gilding and painting. A number of poles and spears bearing flags and streamers, pikes ornamented with tufts of cows’ tails painted red, lanterns and umbrellas, and other insignia denoting the rank of the passenger, are erected at each end of the boat. And as these people, like the Chinese, differ in most of their notions from the greater portion of mankind, the company always sit in the fore part of the boat; but as it would be a breach of good manners for the rowers to turn their backs on the passengers, they stand with their faces towards the bow of the boat, pushing the oars from them instead of pulling towards them, as is usually done in the western world. The servants and the baggage occupy the stern of the boat. The vessels that are employed in the coasting trade, the fishing craft, and those which collect the *Trepan* and swallows’

nests among the cluster of islands called the *Paracels*, are of various descriptions; many of them, like the Chinese *Sampans*, covered with sheds of matting, under which a whole family constantly resides; and others, resembling the common proas of the Malays, both as to their hulls and rigging. Their foreign traders are built on the same plan as the Chinese junks, the form and construction of which are certainly not to be held out as perfect models of naval architecture; yet, as they have subsisted some thousands of years unaltered, they are at least entitled to a little respect from the antiquity of the invention. As these vessels never were intended for ships of war, extraordinary swiftness for pursuit or escape was not an essential quality; security rather than speed was the object of the owner. And as no great capitals were individually employed in trade, and the merchant was both owner and navigator, a limited tonnage was sufficient for his own merchandize; the vessel was therefore divided, in order to obviate this inconvenience, into distinct compartments, so that one ship might separately accommodate many merchants. The bulk heads by which these divisions were formed consisted of planks of two inches thick, so well caulked and secured as to be completely watertight.

“ Whatever objections may be started against the dividing of ships’ holds, and the interference in the stowage seems to be the most material one, it cannot be denied that it gives to large vessels many important advantages. A ship, thus fortified with cross bulk-heads, may strike on a rock and yet sustain no serious injury; a leak springing in one division of the hold will not be attended

attended with any damage to the articles placed in another: and by the ship being thus so well bound together, she is firm and strong enough to sustain a more than ordinary shock. It is well known to seamen, that when a large ship strikes the ground, the first indication of her falling in pieces is when the edges of the decks begin to part from the sides; but this separation can never happen when the sides and the deck are firmly bound together by cross bulk-heads. In fact, this old Chinese invention is now on trial in the British navy, as a new experiment. Other schemes have likewise been proposed in this country for propelling ships in a calm, by large scullers, by water wheels placed at the sides or through the bottom, and by various other modes; all of which, though taking the name of *Inventions*, have been in common use among the Chinese for more than two thousand years.

“Although the present king of this country has to a certain degree broken the fetters of custom, as far as regards the construction of ships of war, yet, in doing this, he has not been unmindful of popular prejudice, which, in Asiatic countries in particular where they are wholly guided by opinion, is stamped with a character too sacred to be torn up at once by the roots. Out of deference to this prejudice, he caused that part only of the hull or body of the vessel to be altered which is immersed in the water; all the upper works, the masts, sails and rigging, remaining Cochinchinese. Indeed it may be questioned if the pliant bamboo, which forms so material a part of the upper works of their vessels, could be displaced with any advantage by solid timber, than which

it is more light and equally strong. It is impossible not to admire the good sense of this wise and active prince, who, in steering this middle path, obtained a real advantage without introducing any visible change.

“Of tenacity to ancient custom a curious instance appeared on the part of the emperor of Japan, when the Dutch carried to this sovereign from Batavia, a few years ago, among other presents, the model of a ship of war. The ambassador happening to observe the emperor casting his eye upon this model, and conceiving the occasion might be turned to the advantage of his employers, ventured to make a proposal for sending to Japan a number of proper artificers from Holland, for the purpose of instructing his subjects in the art of ship-building according to the practice of Europe. The emperor desired he might be asked how long his countrymen had been acquainted with the art of constructing ships on the model he had brought. The ambassador replied, about three hundred years. ‘Tell him,’ says the emperor, ‘that my people have built such ships as he sees floating in my harbours for as many thousand years, and that I have not yet heard of any complaints against their utility. I shall not, therefore, pay so ill a compliment to myself or to my people, as to lay aside the test of ages for an invention of yesterday. The Dutch ships may suit the Dutch, but not the Japanese. Tell him, therefore, I would advise him to take back this part of his present.’

“The Cochinchinese having effectually preserved the written characters of the Chinese language, we found no difficulty in communicating with them on all subjects, through this medium, by our Chinese

nese priests. The spoken language, however, has undergone a very considerable change, which is the less surprising, as the inhabitants of the northern and southern provinces of China are unintelligible to each other; but though it has been altered, it does not appear to have received any improvement, neither from additions of their own, nor from the introduction of foreign words.

“ To these people we found less difficulty in making ourselves intelligible than we had to encounter in our future intercourse with the grave and solemn Chinese, whose dignity would be thought to suffer debasement by their condescending to employ the pencil in delineating objects, notwithstanding its alliance with their mode of writing; or by attempting to indicate, by signs and gestures, such ideas as are capable of being interchanged without the aid of language. This was by no means the case with the Cochinchinese, who always seemed anxious to enter into our views, and to facilitate a mutual understanding. Those Chinese, however, who traffic with or engage as servants to Europeans at Canton, are as ready, as ingenious, and as fertile in inventions for making themselves intelligible to their employers, and in meeting the ideas of those whom it is their interest to please, as any other people possibly can be. A captain, for instance, of one of the East India Company's ships pointing one day at table towards a dish, which he supposed to be hashed duck, desired his Chinese servant, who had only learned a little of the jargon which this description of persons are usually taught by their masters, to get him some of the *quaak-quaak*. The servant, having looked at the dish, shook his head,

and, by way of correcting his master's mistake, observed significantly that it was not *quaak-quaak*, but *bow-wow*, the dish happening to be a preparation of *dog* instead of *duck*.

“ It is scarcely necessary to observe that the religion of the Cochinchinese, like that of almost all the Oriental nations, is a modification of the widely extended doctrine of *Budha*, appearing, however, from the little we had an opportunity of seeing as to the devotional part, more simple and less disguised with the mysteries and machinery of oracular worship, than that which is practised popularly in China. From a sentiment of gratitude to the benevolent and bountiful spirit, the Cochinchinese, like the Jews of old, manifest their piety by offering to the image of the protecting deity the firstlings of their living flocks and of the fruits of the earth. The first ears of rice, the first ripe nut of the areca, the first cup of sugar, or whatever the nature of the produce may be, is taken to the shrine which contains the sacred image, and is there deposited with becoming reverence, as a humble acknowledgment of the divine goodness. I was much gratified in the opportunity of being present at an offering of this nature. Landing from our boat one serene evening, in a little cove on the northern shore of Turon bay, I observed a person in a long yellowish coloured robe reaching to the ground, his head bare and closely shaved, marching with a kind of measured step towards a large spreading tree, and followed by a few of the peasantry. On arriving at the foot of the tree they all halted. Just at the head of the main trunk (for it was a species of *Ficus Indica* or Banyan tree, called *D.a* in Cochinchina, whose branches

take

take root and become stems) I observed a large cage of latticed work, with a pair of folding doors, fixed between two boughs, and partly hidden by the foliage. Within was a wooden figure of *Budha* or *Fo*, of the same corpulent shape and in the usual sitting posture as he is represented in the temples of China. A little boy attending on the priest stood close before him with a burning coal on a brazen dish. One of the peasants carried a ladder of bamboo, which he placed against the tree; and another mounting it deposited in the cage, before the idol, two basins of rice, a cup of sugar, and one of salt. The priest in the mean time, with arms extended and eyes turned towards heaven, muttered something in a low tone of voice, when the man who had carried the ladder on his knees and nine times prostrated his body on the ground, according to the custom of the Chinese. Several women and children remained at a distance, as if forbidden to approach too near; though, as priestesses are said to be common in this country, it is not probable there was any restriction on account of the sex.

“That the ladder was the property of the priest, and that at a suitable time he would take care to remove the sacred deposit and appropriate the offering to his own use, like the priests of the idol Bel in times of old, as related in the apocryphal writings, there is little room for doubting; but the offering was not, on that account, less a token of the piety and gratitude of him who made it. And although it might have been more dignified, on the part of the priest, to take his due fairly and openly, yet there are not perhaps any class of men who are better entitled to a remuneration for their services than

those whose time is occupied in keeping alive the duties of religion. At all times and in all nations the disposal of the first fruits seems to have been vested in the hands of the priests. From sacred history it clearly appears to have formed a part of the Jewish dispensation; and we are informed by Pliny that no one ever thought of tasting new fruits or new wine until the priests had first performed the customary libations--*Ac ne degustabant quidem novas fruges aut vima antequam sacerdotes primitias libassent.*

“On the skirts of every little grove of trees near Turon bay small boxes of wood or baskets of wicker work were either suspended from or fixed among the branches, some containing images made of various materials, and others painted or gilded paper cut into different shapes, inscriptions on slips of wood in the Chinese character, and many other indications of their sacred destination. Trees, in fact, appear to have been among the first of temples that were consecrated to the deities. To man, but little advanced beyond a state of nature, the grandest objects that present themselves are those most likely to arrest his adoration. Such on the plains are trees of venerable antiquity, and on the mountains their high peaked summits of solid rock. But man, more vain and ambitious in proportion as he became more civilised, conceived a Babel whose summit should reach to the skies. The most sumptuous and magnificent temples were consecrated to the deity by most of the polished nations of antiquity, and this practice has universally been adopted by the professors of Christianity; but the Chinese and their neighbours differ in their opinions on this subject,

subject, as on most others, from the rest of mankind. They are content to worship

“——that Spirit that does prefer
Before all temples the upright heart and
pure,”

in all places and under all circumstances. A little casket not larger than a snuff-box frequently enshrines a favourite divinity. Solitary devotion, it is true, requires not the space that is necessary for congregational worship. A tutelary deity may be placed in any corner of the house, or carried about in the pocket.

“The Cochinchinese are extremely superstitious, and their devotional exercises, like those of the Chinese, are more frequently performed with the view of averting an ideal evil, than with the hope of acquiring a positive good; or, in other words, the evil spirit is more dreaded than the good one revered. In various parts of the country are large wooden stakes or pillars erected, not only for the purpose of marking the spot where some great calamity, either of a public or a private nature, may have happened, as the loss of a battle, the murder of an individual, or other unfortunate event, but as a propitiation to the evil spirit by whose influence it is supposed to have been occasioned. So also when an infant dies, the parents are supposed to have incurred the displeasure of some malignant spirit, which they endeavour to appease by offerings of rice, oil, tea, money, or whatever they may imagine to be the most acceptable to the angry divinity. From such sentiments one may venture to hope that the horrid practice of infanticide is not among the bad customs they have retained of the Chinese.

“Beside the spontaneous offer-

ings which individuals conceive it necessary to make on various occasions, it seems that a yearly contribution, levied by government, is paid for the support of a certain number of monasteries, in which the priests invoke the deity for the public welfare. This contribution consists of produce in kind, as rice, fruits, sugar, areca nut, and other articles; in lieu of which, in towns, are collected money, metals, clothing, and such like. The priests here, as in China, are considered to be the best physicians; but their art lies more in charms and fascinations than in the judicious application of sanative drugs.

“It may be inferred that the fundamental principles of the Cochinchinese government are the same as those of China; that they have the same laws and the same modes of punishment: but on this subject I am unable to communicate any information. In the open building adjoining that where the ruling mandarin resided, we saw both the *Tcha* and the *Pan-tsé* (the cangue and the bamboo); but whether the execution of the laws are here less rigidly attended to, or the morals of the people less corrupt, than in China, I will not pretend to say: it may be observed, however, that not a single punishment of any description occurred to our notice, whereas in China we scarcely ever passed a town or village in which our eyes were not offended at the sight of the cangue, or the ears assailed with the cries of persons suffering under the stroke of the bamboo. There, indeed, the mandarins, however corrupt and debauched in private life, assume in public an austerity of conduct, which gives a sanction to their corrections; but a mandarin of Cochinchina, who openly violates the

the rules of decorum, and sets in his own person the example of levity and licentiousness, could but with a very bad grace direct and superintend the punishment of another

less guilty than himself. At all events, the spirit of the people of Turoh did not appear to suffer any depression from a too severe exercise of the hand of power.

DESCRIPTION of the BOSJESMEN of SOUTHERN AFRICA.

[From the Same.]

“**H**AVING received from his excellency lieutenant-general Dundas, acting governor and commander in chief of the castle, town, and settlement of the Cape of Good Hope, our credentials and instructions, examined the invoice of the several articles intended to be given in exchange for cattle, and arranged the contents of our six waggons, we this day,’ says Mr. Truter, ‘the first of October 1801, commenced, under God’s good providence, our long and interesting journey.’ After a minute detail of every particular circumstance that occurred, and a relation of the ordinary events of such a journey; the names of the several farms and their occupiers where they halted for the night, or for obtaining refreshment or a change of draught oxen; the little interruptions and mortifications they met with, owing to the want of punctuality in the boors in bringing their fresh relays of oxen, to the breaking of axle-trees, yokes, and traces; the difficulty of ascending Roode Sand Kloof; the impracticability of passing the Witsenbergh or Mostaert Hoek, which compelled them to take the circuitous route over the Hex, River Kloof, (in their progress through which, Mr. Truter observes, they crossed the rapid stream of the same name rushing

down its rocky channel no less than seven times); their passage of the Bokkeveld, and that corner of the Great Karroo or desert between it and the Roggeveld, where the absence of all human habitations compelled them to sleep for several nights in their tents and waggons; their ascent, from those plains, up the steep and lofty mountains called the Roggeveld:—after surmounting these and many other difficulties they arrived, on the evening of the 14th, on the south bank of the Great Riet river, opposite the Bonteberg, where they pitched their tents for the night, the weather being extremely cold, boisterous and rainy. In this river they caught an abundance of a particular species of fish, the flavour of which was tolerably good; but the bones being something of the same kind as in the herring, and the fish small, made it the less acceptable to hungry travellers. Here also, for the first time, they observed the fresh prints of the paws of a lion.

“Pursuing their journey from hence, after crossing the river several times, they halted at a deserted farm-house called the Ganna-Kraal, which place had previously been appointed as the rendezvous for the escort of boors that were summoned to attend the expedition,

pedition, as well as for the relays of fresh oxen to draw the waggons over the desert. But having waited here for two days without receiving any intelligence either of the boors or the oxen, they resolved to proceed without them; and accordingly, on the 18th, after crossing the Karree river, which is here considered to be the boundary of the colony, they made a short day's journey and encamped for the night near the Brakke fontein, where they presently had the great satisfaction to perceive, at some distance, a party of boors and Hottentots and cattle hastening towards them over the plain. Their joy, however, was of short duration, and followed by vexation and disappointment; for, on examining the oxen, the greater part were found to be very young, totally unaccustomed to the yoke, and not a single good team could be selected from the whole drove.

“Determined, notwithstanding this grievous disappointment, to prosecute the journey they had undertaken, and being now advanced beyond the limits of the colony, it was deemed expedient, in the first place, to muster the party, to ascertain the strength of the expedition, and to prescribe certain regulations for their conduct, which were rigidly to be adhered to during the journey before them, whose distance and duration were equally uncertain.

“The account of the whole expedition was found to stand as follows:

Mr. Truter,	} commissioners.
Mr. Somerville,	
Mr. Daniell, secretary & draughtsman.	
Mr. Borchers, assistant-secretary.	
Mr. Scholtz, superintendant of the waggons.	

Seven Dutch boors, inhabitants of the Roggeveld.

Making in the whole twelve Christians.

24 Hottentots and *bastard* Hottentots.

4 Slaves.

120 Draught oxen.

18 Saddle-horses, and

20 Large muskets.

“‘With the blessing of God,’ observes Mr. Truter, ‘we considered these our numbers and our means of defence to be fully sufficient for our protection and preservation; and, confiding in his goodness, we launched upon the Karroo or desert plains, on the 20th October.’ Little occurred in their journey over these dreary solitudes to engage the attention, except their uncommon sterility, and now and then a few quachas or wild horses, a solitary gemsbok, an eland, a hartebeest, or a pair of ostriches, which might perhaps be observed grazing at a distance, or scouring away to avoid the party, when they happened to approach them unperceived. In the course of the third day they passed the ruins of an earthen building of considerable dimensions, surrounded by a number of demolished huts, which they were informed were the remains of an establishment attempted to be formed by the two gospel missionaries Kicherer and Edwards, under the direction of the society for sending missions into Africa and the East. Proceeding slowly till midnight, they halted on the bank of the Sack river, near which, the next morning, they observed another kraal or hamlet in ruins, where these missionaries had held a temporary residence. At this place two miserable-

able-looking wretches, of the tribe of men usually called Bosjesmen by the colonists, perfectly naked, and apparently perishing with hunger, advanced towards the encampment, and accosted the party in a language wholly unintelligible: but the signs they made use of could not easily be mistaken. They gave them something to eat, which, with a little tobacco, had an instantaneous effect on their spirits, and caused them to dance for joy. They were just able to make the party understand that their names were Jacob and Jephtha, and that they had been disciples of the two missionaries above-mentioned.

“Pursuing their journey over these dreary and desolate plains, where few living creatures except a quacha, a harte-beest, or an ostrich were occasionally seen browsing at a distance, the party arrived on the evening of the 23d at a brack or saltish river, where they pitched their tents for the night. Here they were again accosted by a solitary Bosjesman, who called himself *Wildboy*, indicating by signs, for not a creature could comprehend the meaning of a single syllable he uttered, that he was extremely hungry. Having ordered as much food to be given to him as was sufficient to satisfy the craving of his appetite, he stole away in the course of the night, and they saw no more of him.

“At a little distance from the next halting-place, the Lion’s fountain, one of the party had the good fortune to shoot a quacha of a larger size than what any of the boors had ever recollected to have seen, of which Mr. Daniell made a very accurate drawing. It was the first wild quadruped they had procured. In the midst of so extensive and dreary a desert they were not a

little surprized, though by no means an unusual thing, to meet with a Dutch boor of the name of Kok, who, with a waggon and his whole family, his slaves, his Hottentots, his cattle, and his sheep, was travelling leisurely from the Orange river towards the skirts of the colony. The disinclination of these people to establish themselves on a particular spot, and to live in any sort of comfort, is very remarkable, and can only be explained on the principle of an irresistible charm which unbounded liberty and unrestrained possession exert on the human mind, and which operates most powerfully on him who has never known the pleasures of social life. It is a well-known fact, that numbers of the French officers in America, led by the impulse of this principle, retired into the Indian settlements, threw aside their clothing, painted and tatooed their bodies, and became, in every respect, savages of a much worse description than the natives, by uniting with their new condition all the vices of civilized life. To rove about the desert wilds of Africa, to harass and destroy the harmless natives, to feast on game procured by their Hottentots, and to sleep and loiter away the day while jolting in his waggon, are to the Dutch boor among the most exquisite pleasures he is capable of enjoying. By indolence and gluttony, from the effects of a good climate and a free exposure to the air, these people usually grow to a monstrous size; and if suffered to continue their present uncontrolled mode of life, they may ultimately give birth to a race of Patagonians on the southern extremity of Africa, not inferior in stature to their tall brethren on the opposite coast of America.

“Continuing

“Continuing their journey on the 28th and 29th over a rugged country and a constant succession of hills, whose surfaces were strewed with a greater abundance of stones than of vegetation, and on which two or three of their waggons broke down, they were under the necessity of halting on both nights, without finding the least grass or any kind of food for the cattle and without a drop of water. This hilly part of the country was called by the boors the Karree bergen. From the feet of these hills a plain of vast extent stretched out to the northward, of a nature altogether different from the Karroo desert over which they had just passed: the latter being a solid bed of clay on which little vegetation appears, except a few straggling weak and sickly succulent plants; but the former was thickly covered with long withered grass. On the skirts of this plain our travellers observed at a distance a party of natives intending apparently to approach them. It consisted of eight persons, some partially covered with skins, and others naked; but all of them armed with bows in their hands, quivers on their backs, and arrows stuck in a fillet bound round the head forming a kind of coronet. Having advanced pretty near the waggons they stopped short; and on being beckoned to come forwards, they made signs, by pointing to the ground, that somebody should first go to them. Accordingly some of the party proceeded towards them, on which they betrayed evident marks of fear. They were presented with some lacquered brass medallions, a couple of grenadiers’ caps, a few gilt rings, a little tobacco, and, as they appeared to be greatly in want of food, with a whole sheep, which

they immediately killed by cutting the throat; and having divided it among them in shares as nearly equal as they could contrive, including both the skin and the entrails, they walked off with great satisfaction. Shortly after this, three others of the same tribe made their appearance; but all the endeavours of the party to bring them to a conversation were unavailing. Two of them retired, and the third, after much persuasion by signs, advanced near enough to receive a ration of tobacco for himself and two for his companions, when he also instantly vanished.

“On the midst of this grassy plain our travellers came to an extensive lake, the water of which was so very salt as to be wholly unfit for use either by man or beast. At the distance of five miles beyond this lake they came to a second, and farther on to a third, all of the same description. Rising by a gentle ascent from this plain to one of much greater elevation, they arrived on the 1st November at the entrance of a *poort* or chasm in a ridge of high hills, where, for the first time since leaving the mountain of the Roggeveld, a distance not much short of two hundred miles, they had met with any species of plant which could be said to bear the resemblance of a tree. From these lonely wastes of Africa, ‘where,’ as Dr. Johnson observes of part of Scotland, ‘the traveller has nothing to contemplate but grounds that have no visible boundaries,’ nature seems to have withheld her bounteous hand and doomed them to cheerless, irremediable, and consequently perpetual, sterility. On the spot, however, where the travellers were now arrived the sides of the hills were enlivened by shrubby plants and straggling trees, and

and whole forests appeared in many of the vallies. The face of the country began now to assume a pleasing and an interesting aspect, and still more so towards the middle of the same day, when the party arrived on the southern bank of a river of very considerable magnitude, called by the natives the *Gariëp*, but by the colonists the *Orange* river. Numbers of Hottentots came forward to meet them; and on the opposite bank they could perceive an extensive village, composed of decent looking huts.—After passing the long and dreary Karroo desert, it was an interesting and a cheerful event to mix with a very considerable population, apparently of a much superior class of beings, though probably of the same race, to those few miserable wretches which had hitherto occasionally shewn themselves in the course of the journey.

“A river of such unusual magnitude in this quarter of the globe was also a subject which afforded them no small degree of pleasure. At this spot it was divided into two branches by an island in the middle, each of which was not less than six hundred yards in width. The water, by sounding, was found to be deeper than the height of the bottom of the waggon; it became necessary, therefore, to raise their contents, by means of billets of wood, in order to keep them dry. The whole cavalcade got safely over the two streams, except one waggon, the oxen of which, having by some accident turned their heads down the stream, got into deeper water, where they soon lost their legs; and the whole machine being swept away with great violence, both oxen and waggon would inevitably have been lost, but for the active exertions of the native Hot-

tentots who, by cutting the yokes and traces, freed the oxen and brought all except one safe to the shore; and afterwards succeeded in dragging out the waggon, which was overturned by the stream. ‘The Dutch boors,’ observes Mr. Truter, ‘were as helpless as children, and of no manner of assistance whatever.’

“The native inhabitants which are settled on the banks of the Orange river, where our travellers crossed it, (namely in latitude 29° N. and longitude between 25° and 24° E.) are a variety of the Hottentot race, whose particular horde, in their own language, is called the *Koras*. In estimating their comparative condition with the different tribes of this nation, they may fairly be reckoned to rank much higher than any of the others that are known on the southern extremity of Africa. The wide desert Karroo between them and the colony has hitherto protected them in a considerable degree, though not altogether, from the oppression of the Dutch boors, under whose lash their brethren less remote from the colony have so severely suffered. Their abode being stationary on the banks of the Orange river, their huts were constructed with greater care, and with a view of being more durable; in their persons they were more cleanly, and in their dress and domestic utensils neater, than the Hottentots usually are. This superiority may probably be owing, in a certain degree, to the advantages of local situation. A running stream in South Africa is a great rarity. To the want of water may probably be attributed the origin of the custom of greasing the skin, which this grand river renders unnecessary. The *Koras* accordingly exhibit none of that filthy

filthy and squalid appearance which characterizes the Hottentots on the skirts of the colony. Their features are also of a superior cast. What the *Gonaquas* were on the eastern coast the *Koras* seem to be to the northward, a mixed breed between the Hottentot and the Kaffer.

"Their dwellings, in the shape of hemispheres, generally about six feet high, and eight in diameter, are constructed on the same principle as those of the *Namaqua* Hottentots, and covered with several folds of neat matting made of rushes or coarse grass. They used vessels of wood, hollowed out from blocks of willow, for containing milk and water. They seemed to have no knowledge of agriculture, but had considerable possessions of horned cattle, sheep, and goats. They had also plenty of dogs. Like the Kaffers they live in a great measure on curdled milk, on berries and roots, and like those also are particularly attentive to their cattle, which they train in habits of strict subordination and command. When a cow is supposed to withhold her milk, they practise the method which the ancient Scythians, as we are told by Herodotus, made use of to force the milk out of the udders of their mares. Indeed both the Kaffers and Hottentots have recourse to this method, when the animal is stubborn and supposed to refuse giving her milk. One of the old writers on South Africa, by way of convincing his readers of the truth of the practice, has embellished his work with a print on this elegant subject, exhibiting a Hottentot in the act of blowing up a cow.

"Their dress consisted of skin cloaks, like the other Hottentot tribes; and the women wore square

ornamented aprons suspended from the waist, with copper chains and beads of glass round the neck, the wrists, and legs. These chains were probably procured from the Damaras, a nation of Kaffers to the north-westward, dwelling at the foot of the copper mountains. This metal, indeed, is said to be found in many places near the banks of the Orange river, and the party picked up what appeared to be a specimen of native gold: but mines are of little value in a country where there are no materials necessary for working them, no navigable rivers nor passable roads, by which their produce can at any reasonable expence be transported to a market. Those who set any value on this part of Southern Africa, for the mines it contains, know very little of the nature of the country.

"Some of the men among the *Koras* were observed to be *Monorchids*; but whether the defect was in consequence of some operation submitted to while young, on superstitious grounds, or occasioned by accident, or the sport of nature, does not appear to have been ascertained.

"In swimming across this wide and rapid river, and transporting at the same time their sheep, or other articles, the *Koras* make use of a curious contrivance. They take a log of wood from six to eight feet in length, and at the distance of a few inches from one of its ends, fix a wooden peg. On this log the person intending to cross the river stretches himself at full length, and holding fast by the peg with one hand, whilst with the other, and occasionally with his feet, he strikes to keep the end of the log in a certain direction (which is that of an angle of about 45 degrees with the stream) the obliquity of

of the log opposed to the current causes it, in floating down the stream, to push gradually over to the opposite side in the hypothenusal line of a triangle, whose base is the width of the river.

“Both the banks of the Orange river were at this part of it thickly covered with mimosas and willows and a great variety of other trees, whose names and descriptions are not mentioned. A little beyond the right bank the great quantity of a species of shrubby mimosa, seldom higher than seven or eight feet, with a small white leaf, was very remarkable. It was the prevailing feature on the surface of the country for twenty or thirty miles, though not a single plant of the kind had appeared on the Cape side of the river. Here also they found, growing in great abundance, a species of wild onion, of a taste as strong and pungent nearly as that of garlic; notwithstanding which it was so highly acceptable to the travellers, that they laid in an ample supply for future use on the journey. The leaves, flowers, and seeds resembled those of the common cultivated species. On the margin of the river they found, in great plenty, a small and delicate orange-coloured poppy; and, creeping over a great extent of surface, a very fragrant species of *Clematis* or Virgin’s bower. The agate, onyx, sardonyx, and chalcidony abounded on the pebbled bed of the river, of which they collected some very beautiful specimens. Several *hippopotami* were observed rolling about, blowing and snorting in the deep parts of the river, at a little distance below the ford; and one was severely wounded by a musket ball, but it escaped.

“Leaving the river on the 6th,

they travelled till the 8th before they met with any water; when, after pushing their way where neither traces of waggons nor tracks of any kind appeared, and in constant anxiety and doubtful suspense whether they might not be entangled and finally stopped by mountains, deep chasms, or thickets, they came to a village of *Kora* Hottentots, situated in a deep defile of the mountains; and a little farther on, to a second horde of Bastards and Bosjesmen, under a chief of the former description whose name was Kok. This man was a kind of volunteer missionary who, to the great astonishment of our travellers, delivered a very able discourse to his people in their presence, from a text out of the gospel of St. John, on the subject of regeneration, which was preceded and followed by an extemporary prayer and by singing of hymns. The missionary Edwards and his wife and a boor of the name of Kruger had joined the party on the right bank of the Orange river; and a little beyond the kraal of Kok was the Aakaap or Rietfonteyn, the then residence of Mr. Kicherer. On their arrival at this place on the 8th, being Sunday, they found this zealous teacher of the gospel engaged in the duties of his office. His church was a temporary building of poles, wattled with twigs, plaistered over with clay and cow dung both within and without, and covered with a thatch of reeds. A smaller hut of the same construction served for a school, and a third for his habitation. A number of other huts of an inferior kind, shaped like bee-hives and consisting chiefly of grass matting, were scattered over the plain; but on the strangers approaching towards them, their inhabitants, men, wo-

men and children, all fled and hid themselves in the bushes. Mr. Kicherer received the travellers with great kindness and affability. He was assisted in the labours of his mission by two other missionaries of the names of Anderson and Cramer, all of them sent out by the African Society in London for the propagation of the gospel among the heathen. How far the subjects of faith, of regeneration, of the Trinity and other mystical doctrines, can consistently be preached with advantage, either temporal or spiritual, to a race of men the most savage, and the most miserable perhaps on the face of the earth, the missionaries themselves ought to be the best judges; but from their own account of them it would appear that their zeal is woefully misapplied, and that the benevolent intentions of the society at home, after an enormous expence, can only end in disappointment. The condition, indeed, of the poor wretches which compose the congregation of these missionaries is such as to require worldly comforts rather than spiritual consolation. 'They take no great care of their children,' says Mr. Kicherer, 'and never correct them except in a fit of rage, when they almost kill them by severe usage. In a quarrel between father and mother, or the several wives of a husband, the defeated party wreaks his or her vengeance on the child of the conqueror, which in general loses its life. The Bosjesmans will kill their children without remorse on various occasions, as when they are ill-shaped, when they are in want of food, when the father of a child has forsaken its mother, or when obliged to fly from the boors or others; in which case they will strangle them, smother them, cast them away

in the desert, or bury them alive. There are instances of parents throwing their tender offspring to the hungry lion, who stands roaring before their cavern, refusing to depart till some peace-offering be made to him. They also frequently forsake their aged relations, leaving the old person with a piece of meat and an ostrich egg-shell full of water: as soon as this little stock is exhausted, the poor deserted creature must perish by hunger, or become the prey of wild beasts.—Many of these wild Hottentots live by plunder and murder, and are guilty of the most horrid and atrocious actions. Such,' says he, 'are the people to whom the providence of God has directed our course.'

"Setting aside the sheer nonsense of the lion roaring before the cavern, which the easy credulity of Mr. Kicherer led him to believe as a fact, it is evident on the face of the above statement, that the chief, and perhaps the sole, motive for destroying or abandoning the helpless and the destitute, the infants and the aged, is their extreme indigence. Without any covering to protect his body from the vicissitudes of the weather, without possessions or property of any kind except his bow and his quiver of arrows, the Bosjesman exists from day to day on what the fortune of the chase may throw within his reach, on a few bulbous roots which the barren soil scantily supplies, on the eggs of ants and the larvæ of locusts; and when these all fail, he is glad to have recourse to toads, mice, snakes, and lizards. To satisfy the present craving of the stomach is his grand object; and this accomplished in its fullest extent, he seems to enjoy a short-lived species of happiness, which
either

either shews itself in an exhilaration of spirits not unlike that which usually attends the first stage of intoxication, or throws him into a profound sleep. Among such a people it is not surprising that infants and aged persons should be left to perish. If the dread of pinching poverty and the horrors of absolute want are sufficient to urge the civilized Chinese to the commission of infanticide on their own offspring, it is the less surprising that a similar or a still more hopeless condition should operate similar effects on the savage Bosjesman. Human nature is every where the same. When the Moravian missionaries first landed in Labrador, the same inhuman practice, though with the most benevolent intention, prevailed among the natives of putting to death the widows and the orphans; not because it was an ancient custom, or that the shedding of human blood was agreeable to their nature, but for a much stronger reason: improvident of their own families, they could not be supposed to supply the means of support for the helpless orphan or the desolate widow of another. And here the superior advantages resulting from the system of the Moravians over that of the Gospel missionaries are most forcibly demonstrated. Instead of encouraging the natives in their rambling disposition from place to place, they laboured to fix them to one spot; instead of preaching to them the mysterious parts of the gospel, they instructed them in useful and industrious habits; instead of building a church, they erected a store-house. They caused this common store to be divided into as many compartments as there were families, leaving one at each end larger than the rest, to be ap-

propriated solely to the use of the widows and the orphans; and having taught them the process of salting and drying the fish caught in vast multitudes in the summer months, the produce was collected into this general depository of their industry, to serve as a provision for the long and dismal winter which reigns in this inclement climate; deducting, however, from the compartment of every family a tenth of the produce, to be deposited in those of the widows and the orphans. Their labours were crowned with complete success. From this time a provision was made sufficient for the preservation of these desolate and helpless creatures. Thus the Moravian Society has been the means of converting the inhabitants of Labrador into useful citizens as well as good christians, whilst the African Society has not reclaimed a single Bosjesman from the wild and savage state in which its zealous missionaries first discovered him.

“If zeal alone was sufficient for the conversion of these miserable creatures to christianity, and consequently to a state of civilization, no man has more merit nor better deserves success than the missionary Kicherer. He is in every respect a truly worthy character, but he is an enthusiast; and he feels and assumes to himself more merit in being able to relate some little anecdote of a savage applying or quoting a scripture passage, than if he had accomplished all that the Moravians have done for the Hottentots (and they have done much) at Bavian’s Kloof. He observes, for instance, in one of his reports to the society, that the Bosjesmans made a fire by twirling the point of a stick on the surface of another; that one of his people in a rainy-

night, not being able to succeed, bethought himself of calling on Jesus, when he was immediately answered, and struck up a good fire, notwithstanding the rain.

“Every account that has been given of the Bosjesmans tends to confirm the opinion of their being among the most miserable of the human race, and in their present condition wholly incapable of profiting by the doctrines of Christianity. Their number is, however, very inconsiderable. In travelling through the heart of the desert occupied by them, the present party did not in the whole journey see fifty persons, and of course had but little opportunity of making and comparing their observations on their character and condition. Of the few they saw it was remarked that several had attained a very considerable age; that the oldest had not lost a single tooth, but that in many in-

stances they were worn down in a remarkable manner to mere stumps; that out of the number seen at least half-a-dozen were blind in one eye, which they pretended to have been occasioned while young by accidents from fire; that the greater part wanted the first joint of the little finger, which they said had been taken off as a charm against misfortunes, or to stop an incipient disorder; that the sting of a scorpion, which to Europeans or colonists is always attended with dangerous consequences, and by which one of the present party suffered severely, has no ill effect on this people, which they endeavoured to explain by saying that while children being accustomed to be stung by these insects, the poison in time ceases to have any effect on them, as the small-pox virus loses its action on a person who has had the disease.”

DESCRIPTION of the CLIMATE, CUSTOMS, and INHABITANTS of BARBADOES.

[From Dr. PINCKARD'S NOTES on the WEST INDIES.]

“BARBADOES is the most windward of the West India Islands; and is in that division of them known by the appellation of Charibbee Islands—a name they have obtained from one of the nations of Indians, who formerly inhabited them.

“It is about twenty-one miles in length, by fourteen in breadth; lying in latitude 13° North, longitude 59° West. The English have occupied it nearly two centuries, having taken possession of it in the reign of James I. At the time of being settled by our countrymen, it was covered with wood, and had no ap-

pearance of having been, before, occupied by man; but it now appears under a very different aspect,—the destructive axe having converted its deep and heavy forests into even characteristic nakedness.

“West Indians regard it as of low and level surface: but this can be only comparatively speaking, and in reference to the neighbouring islands whose bold summits pierce the skies: for Barbadoes has all the pleasant variety afforded by hills and broken land, and, and in some parts, is even mountainous, though less so than Grenada, St. Vincent, or St. Lucie.

“It

“It is considered as an old island, and, from having been long in cultivation, is said to be much exhausted, and wearing to decay. Those concerned in the culture of more recent, and now more prolific colonies, seem to compassionate Barbadoes as the venerable and decrepit parent of the race; while its inhabitants pride themselves upon its antiquity, and, like the feudal lords of still more ancient states, assume a consequence, I might almost say claim hereditary rank and privilege from priority of establishment. This sense of distinction is strongly manifested in the sentiment conveyed by the vulgar expression so common in the island—“neither Charib, nor Creole, but true Barbadian,” and which is participated even by the slaves, who proudly arrogate a superiority above the negroes of the other islands! Ask one of them if he was imported, or is a Creole, and he immediately replies—‘Me neder Chrab, nor Creole, Massa!—me troo Barbadian born.’

“Perhaps the late decline of this island may be still less the effect of exhaustion of the soil, than of the extensive emigration, and the diversion of commerce consequent on the cultivation of new islands and colonies. In the early period of its culture Barbadoes yielded a produce, and gave rise to an extent of commerce, not known in any other island, and its population increased to a degree, perhaps unprecedented in any part of the globe. Within the first fifty years the trade of the island had become sufficient to employ four hundred sail of shipping; and the number of inhabitants amounted to no less than one hundred and fifty thousand, being upwards of five hundred to every square mile.

“To enable the land to continue the bountiful produce it now afforded required much labour, and a great and expensive supply of manure, therefore as new colonies were settled, and new land brought into cultivation, which was capable of yielding equal returns with less labour, and less of artificial supply, it became an object to individuals to emigrate from the neighbouring island of Barbadoes, and engage in the culture of the more recent, and less exhausted settlements; and thus, with the population, the commerce, which before had been confined to the parent island, was necessarily diverted into new and various channels.

“At this day the Dutch colonies of Guiana, and the captured island of Martinique, are a continual drain upon the population of Barbadoes. But notwithstanding its decline from what it once was, it is still the most populous, and one of the most important of our West India possessions. From situation, and from its fine bay for shipping, even independent of its produce, it must ever be valuable to us, and indeed may be considered as the key of the West Indies. Some of the Creoles of the island, not barely sensible of this, commit the excess of attaching to it a degree of importance beyond even England itself.—‘What would poor old England do,’ say they, ‘were Barbadoes to forsake her?’ This adage you will believe expresses only the veneration of the illiterate; but you will admit that it arises from a very natural feeling: for those who have seen but one spot readily fancy that to be of the first importance! And there are multitudes in Barbadoes who never saw any other soil, and who, no doubt, from the same laudable sentiment which we so honor

honor in Britons, regard their native isle as pre-eminent above all others.

“Barbadoes contains a numerous class of inhabitants, between the great planters, and the people of colour, a circumstance which forms a striking difference between this island and the more recent colonies. Of these, many are descended from the original settlers, and have no precise knowledge of the period when their ancestors first arrived. Through several generations they have been born, and have constantly lived upon the island. They regard it as their native, and only abode, and do not, like their more wealthy neighbours, look to England as another and a better home. Of some of these old families I may, perhaps, speak more particularly in another letter.

“If in point of produce Barbadoes now yields to other settlements—if its population and commerce have decreased—if its thick woods have fallen before the rueful axe—and if its mountains are less aspiring than the towering summits of some of the neighbouring islands; still its trade and produce continue to be important; its population great; and the picturesque scenery of its surface, perhaps, unrivalled. Nor are these its only advantages; for, in consequence of being more cleared, and more generally cultivated, than the other islands, its temperature is more equable, and its air more salubrious. Damp woods do not interrupt, nor stagnant morasses empoison the breeze.—Every part is exposed to the full perflation of the trade-wind; by the coolness and salubrity of which, this is rendered the most healthful of the islands; insomuch that it is common, in sickness, to make a voyage from the other colonies to Barbadoes, as the Montpellier of

the West Indies. Being situated to windward of the other islands, it receives the uninterrupted breeze, brought to it in all its purity immediately from a wide extent of ocean, unimpregnated by the septic exhalations of stagnant waters, or polluted soils.—Its temperature has been far less inconvenient than we had expected. We have felt but little oppression from heat; and have continued our habits of exercise without interruption. In the harbour, and placed in the shade, the thermometer has seldom been higher than 84, and at no time has exceeded 86 degrees.

“Yet blessed as the island is in its exemption from excessive heat, from noxious miasmata, and from great and general sickness, it has its peculiar ills; being visited with an endemial affliction, so much its own as to have obtained the appellation of *the Barbadoes disease*. It appears in form of the elephantiasis, or what is here termed the ‘glandular disease,’—and is a most unsightly and distressful malady.

“Bridge-town is the capital of the island, and is situated on the S. W. bank of Carlisle bay, which is one of the finest harbours, for shipping, in the West Indies; but is not considered to be secure during the hurricane season. It derives its name from the circumstance of a royal grant of the island having formerly been made to the earl of Carlisle. The other towns are Speights-town, Austin-town, and Hole-town, all of which are much inferior to Bridge-town.

“Both the scenery and the population of the island are more indebted to the number and variety of mansions, cottages, and huts, thickly spotted over its surface, than to its towns; which, as is too commonly the case in all countries, are

are built with less regard to general appearance, and the health of the inhabitants, than to the convenience of trade, and the profit of individuals.

“On all quarters of the island are seen numbers of wind-mills, store-houses, and other buildings for sugar, coffee and cotton, houses of planters, the smaller dwellings of cottagers, and the huts of negroes, all of which improve the scenery, while they convey the idea of extensive population, and delight the mind with images of rural enjoyment, and of generally diffused comfort and tranquillity. The numerous buildings, together with their protecting shades about them—the luxuriant tropical vegetation—the constant verdure of the fields—the evergreen foliage of the trees—the broken irregular hills, lofty mountains, and cultivated rich-yielding plains—all surrounded with extensive views of shipping and the open sea, create an effect more varied and affecting than is often to be met with, and contribute to render Barbadoes a most pleasant and picturesque island; and from this, added to the examples I have given you of the hospitality, and friendly urbanity of its inhabitants, you will discover how highly it is calculated to call forth the attention, interest the feelings, and secure the attachment of those who visit it.

“In speaking to you of the situation of Barbadoes, it occurs to me to notice the confusion which has arisen in the minds of individuals, from the term commonly employed to distinguish the two grand divisions of our expedition. To discriminate what is literally the *windward* army from that intended for St. Domingo, we hear it denominated the ‘*Leeward Island*’

division, than which it had been difficult to have found a term more pointedly incorrect. If the distinction be intended with regard to the course of the trade-wind, it should have been directly the reverse, for the islands, occupied by the troops of what is called the ‘*Leeward Island*’ armament, happen with respect to St. Domingo to be every one very far to *windward*! If the term regard only the common nautical division of the Charibbee islands themselves, it is still inappropriate, for the *windward*, no less than the *leeward* of these islands, are possessed by what is termed the *leeward* army.

“Any person consulting a map of the West Indies must discover St. Domingo to be among the most *leeward* of the islands, and would necessarily be led to conclude that the *Leeward Island* division, was the St. Domingo division, *i. e.* that they were synonymous, for no one could imagine that the troops occupying Barbadoes, and the more immediately neighbouring islands, could belong to an army designated ‘*Leeward*,’ in contradistinction to the army of St. Domingo. Perhaps the terms *Charibbee Island* division, and St. Domingo division had been more accurate.

“Led by this circumstance we have taken some pains to inform ourselves, which are the islands known under the term ‘*Leeward*,’ according to the common acceptance: but we find this to be a question difficult of solution, almost every one dividing them differently. Scarcely any two persons, from whom we have sought intelligence, have given the same reply; nor does it seem to be accurately known where the line should be drawn. Some regard the distinction as respecting only the direction of the trade-wind;

wind; some derive it from the course taken by the ships from Spain to Carthagenæ; and others, from various other sources and circumstances; yet all agree that Barbadoes is the most to windward; and all allow that the Charibbee islands are less to leeward than St. Domingo.

“But to return to my notes concerning Barbadoes! I have before remarked to you the principal variations of its soil:—near Bridgetown it is of rich black earth, mostly spread on a base of calcareous rock, formed of madripores, and other marine concretions: in some districts it is of a red earth, of greater depth, but less rich: in others the soil is of a light whiteish earth, broken into a grey-looking mould, or hardened into lumps resembling chalk—but actually consisting of indurated argille, bleached by exposure to the weather.

“From this variety in the soil, together with that which attaches to situation, as being flat, or mountainous,—protected, or exposed, it will necessarily happen, that the produce will differ in different parts of the island; and as the whole has been long under cultivation, it is manifest that if a supply of manure, proportionate to the crops obtained, cannot be procured, a degree of exhaustion, bearing a certain ratio to the deficiency, must result.

“It is established, from the mode of agriculture adopted in some counties of England, that, by an adequate supply of manure, land may be continued in a constant round of cultivation, yielding as prolific crops as upon its earliest culture: and this is now found to be no less certain, than that if the land be subjected to continued tillage, without such supply, it will be so exhausted,

in the course of a few years, as not to give sufficient produce to compensate the labour and expence of cultivation.

“The same facts equally apply to Barbadoes, where, if the artificial supply be not commensurate with the produce removed from the land, a gradual diminution of the crops will succeed, or, in order to have these in their usual abundance, the acres in cultivation must be reduced to such a number as the island shall be capable of furnishing with an adequate quantity of manure; and we accordingly find that great herds of a small species of cattle, mostly steers, are kept upon the plantations, for the purpose of supplying this indispensable addition to the soil. These are employed instead of horses in the heavy labour of the estate, and we often see from twelve to twenty-four of them yoked in a waggon, drawing a single hogshead of sugar, or some other small load, such as in London would be conveyed with facility by two horses in a cart.

“At night the cattle are penned upon a bed of trash, collected from the refuse of the canes and other waste materials of the estate, by treading upon which, and mixing it with their own dung, they trample the whole into an useful compost for the fields.

“It necessarily follows from such numbers of these cattle being required, for the purpose of manuring the land, that a greater supply of beef and veal is raised for the markets, and that fresh provisions are more plentiful than in most of the other colonies. Of the custom of buying the veal in live quarters for the pot I have already spoken—and I may now remark that the beef is too commonly killed very young—forming neither beef nor veal,

veal, but a something of flavor and appearance between the two.

“The seasons here are not divided into winter and summer, but into wet and dry: yet are they, by no means, what many from these terms would believe, who might imagine that half the year is drowned with incessant rain, and the other half parched with constant drought. Such a construction of the terms *wet* season, and *dry* season, though not unfrequent, is far from correct, and leads to a very inaccurate idea of the climate; for, although it has been the dry season, during the whole time we have been in Barbadoes, we have scarcely had two successive days without refreshing rain: although the showers are not so heavy at this period as at that of their greater frequency, termed the wet season, when the torrent which falls might often convey the idea of a sudden rupture of the clouds, letting forth their waters in *streams* to the earth.

“The quick evaporation which succeeds to rain in these climates creates a most agreeable and refreshing coolness. The extreme ardor of the sun’s rays is also counteracted by the ever-grateful breeze, which sets in from the sea about eight or nine o’clock in the morning, and continues throughout the day, ceasing only as the sun forsakes us at evening; when we are again defended from oppressive languor by a breeze springing up from the land. This sets in as the sea-breeze subsides, and diverging, as it were from a central point, is felt on all quarters of the island.

“Without these beneficent provisions of nature no tropical climate could have been habitable: nor does that great parent in any thing more admirably display her guardian care, nor more strikingly ex-

hibit the universal consistency, or the happy order and arrangement of her works. The intense heat between the tropics must have been destructive to animal life, had not an antidote been offered in the refreshing trades; which, forming the suite of a burning sun, moderate the effects of his too effulgent rays.

“The day is nearly of equal length throughout the whole circle of the year. We have none of the short dark days of an English winter, nor of the still shorter light nights of a Scottish summer. Nights of one or two hours, and days of six or seven are here equally unknown: until nearly the hour of six fair Aurora opens not her gates to spread around her eastern beams, and solemn Vesper, with little variation throughout the year, closes the spangled brightness of the west about the hour of seven. Evening is scarcely known. The sun traversing his vertical course sinks at once from the horizon, and, refusing his oblique beams to protract or soften the decline of day, robs us of the gentle crepuscule hour, and suddenly throws around all the obscurity of night.

“This uniformity of the diurnal round scarcely exceeds that of the general temperature of the climate, which brings us one perpetual summer. The fields and the trees are always green. Live nature ever smiles. Uninterrupted by the torpor of winter she is neither chilled with frost, nor buried in snow. But, for these advantages, we forgo the sprightly delight, and genial comfort of a summer’s evening, the all-animating pleasures of a returning spring, and the soft and placid joys of gentle twilight’s hour. Had I time for such discussions, I might here enter into a long

long digression upon the comparative excellence of the climate we have left, and that we now inhabit: yet should I yield the palm to my native island, for all the delights of climate in other countries, however great or durable, I know none that can stand in competition with the sweet and animated softness of England's spring.

“Of this soul-enchanting season the effect, no doubt, is much heightened by its periodical return; and from its succeeding to the chilling blasts, and all the long and dreary suspension occasioned by winter. It is in fact the resuscitation of nature, and is calculated universally to enliven,—while it forms the high repast of feeling and contemplative minds.

“What combination—what scenery can man contemplate capable of affording the tender delight felt in a solitary ramble, across the rich and neat enclosures of England, at the happy period, when nature, reanimated by the genial orb of May, displays, in gentle mildness, all her loveliest form, and regales every sense with her softest banquets! Perhaps no scene is known so sweetly grateful—none that so calms the bosom with soft feelings of peace and comfort, or that ministers such copious streams of genuine delight. All around unites in sweetest harmony. The eye, the olfactories, the ear, the very senses of feeling, and of taste—all are gratified.—The fields, spread with green-shooting herbage, appear enchantingly variegated with the cowslip, the yellow crocus, and the daisy.—While the fleecy herd patiently crop the succulent plant, the young lambs are seen skipping, innocent and playful, at the sides of their dams. The hedges protrude the verdant bud and swelling blossom

to dress their chilly nakedness, and the trees, casting off the dull coat of winter, assume the soft livery of the season. The fragrant odours of the apple blossom, the hawthorn and the violet are exhaled around—the blackbird, the thrush, and the nightingale, warbling soft carols amidst the budding bushes, enchant the ear. The very organs of taste are regaled with freshness from the mild salubrious breeze; and to the whole frame a genial feeling is imparted by the fostering rays of a temperate and cheering sun.

“In mental retrospect do I oft-times contemplate a scene which every Englishman of feeling must have frequently enjoyed. Taking him from the busy hum of the world, my fancy leads the lover of nature into the enclosed fields of England, in one of the mild mornings of May, and seating him under a green-budding hedge, upon a mossy and sun-warmed bank, surrounded with violets, bids him look down the sloping mead to the crooked brook which winds in gentle current along the bottom, and there behold the thick wood of the opposite bank, reflecting the dark semblance of its branches in the stream, and bursting forth its protecting foliage to conceal the harmonic songsters of the season. It also directs his eye to the green carpet of shooting herbage, enriched with the tender cowslip and the humble daisy, and invites his regard to the playful innocence of the young lambskins skipping before him. To his ear it conveys grateful melody in the bleating of distant herds; the lively whistling of contented hinds; or the happy milkmaid's simple song: even the loud cawing of the rooks perched on the lofty elms, the soft note of the innocent

nocent robin hopping under the hedge, and the very chirpings of the merry sparrow excite congenial feelings, and improve the general harmony—while the bright sun, occasionally obscured by fleeting clouds, exhibits the varied interchanges of light and shade, and gives a higher interest to all around. Having thus placed him, appealing fancy earnestly demands if any thing in the eternal summer of other regions can equal the soft delight—the genial harmony of soul and sentiment inspired by this tender vernal scene?

“Some fair friends of ours would place at his side the mistress of his heart, and thus give perfection to his happiness, as Buffon perfects the existence of his infant of maturity. But excuse me, ye fair, should I hazard the suggestion whether to be left alone, to think and wish towards her, might in such a situation be less soul-delighting; for anticipation is said to sweeten our highest joys, and, perhaps, it were the very life and essence of such like moments to feel the tender privation of having yet a something to wish, and to hope.

“THE uniform returns of day and night in this climate appear to induce a regularity of habit in the hours of rising, and going to rest. It is common to leave the pillow at six in the morning, and few persons remain out of bed after eleven at night. The coolest and most pleasant part of the day is from six to about half-past seven o’clock in the morning: about eight an oppressive closeness is often experienced, arising from the decline of the land breeze, before that from the sea has become sufficiently strong to diffuse its influence. A similar period, likewise, occurs at evening,

between the abatement of the sea breeze, and the setting in of the breeze from the land. Some days the closeness of these hours is so slight, as to be scarcely perceptible, but commonly they are by far the most oppressive in the twenty-four.

“Respecting the mode of living it may be remarked that in all countries said to be civilized, and among all people calling themselves cultivated, too much of time and attention are devoted to the business of eating and drinking. Perhaps the majority of diseases in social life may be traced to this source. Were it possible to convey, in a single sentence, the frightful train of ills, the melancholy interruptions of health, and the immense consumption of time, thus produced, men would be shocked to read it! They would be terrified to behold the magnitude of an abuse, to which, unheeding, they had so long been devoted. This remark but too correctly applies to the island from whence I am addressing you, and where, from the degree of indolence induced by tropical heat, the ingesta taken to excess may be expected in a peculiar degree to oppress the human frame.

“The people of Barbadoes are much addicted to the pleasures of the table. We have sometimes thought that, in eating, they might put to the blush even the turtle countenances of our London fat citizens.

“The breakfast usually consists of tea and coffee, or chocolate, with eggs, ham, tongue, or other cold meat. Bread is seldom used, but substitutes are found in roasted yams or eddoes, both of which a good deal resemble roasted potatoes. They are used hot, and eaten with butter, which is sometimes made

in the country, but more frequently barrelled and brought from Ireland; that made in the island being of cream-like softness, and not always of good flavor. In the course of the forenoon are used fruits, or sandwiches, with free libations of punch and sangaree. Immediately preceding dinner, which is usually at an early hour, are taken punch and mandram. The dinner, for the most part, is profuse, and many hours are commonly passed at table in full and busy occupation.

“After a more than plentiful consumption of food, a free indulgence in fruit, and a bounteous supply of wine and other good liquors, to crown the repast, the appetite and thirst are further provoked by a dish of sprats, or other broiled fish, and a large bowl of milk punch. Tea and coffee are next served—and lastly comes the supper, which forms no trifling meal. After this the bottle, the glass, and the punch-bowl know no rest, until the silent hour when Morpheus, with rival powers, de-thrones the Bacchanalian god.

“From the nature of the climate we had expected to have found the inhabitants men of meager figure, half dissolved in perspiration, and exhausted almost to shadows: nor, indeed, are such figures rare, but they are to be found, mostly, among the clerks, the book-keepers, and those orders of white people below the managers; those who are employed in active and busy occupation, and have but little time to devote to indolence and the luxuries of the table. Among the merchants and planters are many of as fat and portly figure as well-fed aldermen; to whom, indeed, they are scarcely second in Epicurean devotion.

“We observe that condiments are used very generally, and in great quantity. Acting as stimulants they appear to have the effect of causing the relaxed and enfeebled stomach to receive and to digest more than it would, otherwise, require—more, indeed, than it would, otherwise, take. The various species of red pepper, known in England under the common term Cayenne, are used in quantities that would seem incredible to people of colder climates.

“A mixture of food is often taken, of a nature scarcely less heterogeneous than is commonly consumed at the varied feast of a French appetite; and with this melange of solids, are used wine, punch, porter, cyder, noyeau, and other good liquors in free libation; yet are there specimens of health and vigour, amidst all these indulgences, which might stagger the doctrines of the advocates of abstemiousness.

“In the order of the feast plenty more prevails than elegance. The loaded board groans, nay almost sinks beneath the weight of hospitality. That delicacy of arrangement now studied in England, under the term œconomy of the table, is here deemed a less perfection than a substantial plenty.—Liberality is more esteemed than delicacy in the supply; and solids are, sometimes, heaped upon the table in a crowded abundance that might make a London fine lady faint.

“The repast not unfrequently consists of different kinds of fish—a variety of soups—a young kid—a whole lamb, or half a sheep—several dishes of beef, or mutton—a turkey—a large ham—guinea fowls—and a pigeon pie; with various kinds of puddings; a pro-
fusion

fusion of vegetables; and multitudes of sweets. I was lately one of a small party, where, precisely, this dinner was served, and where the half of a sheep, kicking its legs almost in the face of the master of the house, adorned the bottom of the table—forming the most unseemly dish I ever beheld.

“Perhaps we may find it to be common to the West Indies, but, hitherto, it has appeared to us peculiar to Barbadoes, to put on table three or four large substantial puddings of different kinds, and four or five dishes of the same sort of meat, differently dressed. Unaccustomed to this, an English eye, on looking into the dining-room, is surprized at the continuation of mutton, mutton, mutton, pudding, pudding, pudding, from one end of the table to the other, and which the crowd of other good things seems to render unnecessary.

“The generous board is often supplied wholly from the produce of the estate, and on the occasion of giving an entertainment it is not unusual to kill an ox, a sheep, or, literally, the fatted calf: hence it occurs that various dishes of the same kind of food, under different forms, sometimes make up the principal part of the dinner, and, thus, it becomes explained why we sometimes see upon table, at the same time, roasted mutton, mutton ragout, boiled mutton, mutton chops, and a mutton pie. The puddings mostly used are of citron, coco-nut, yam, lemon, and custard, and do great credit to the Barbadoes cookery-book. The dessert is not less plenteous than the dinner, consisting of a variety of fruits, and preserves, served in crowded supply. The bottle and glass pass

freely, and the fluids are in full proportion to the solids of the feast.

“The liquors most in use are Madeira and claret wines, punch, sangaree, porter, and cyder.—Punch and sangaree are commonly taken as the *diluents* of the morning. The latter forms a most delightful drink. A glass of it, taken when parching with thirst, from heat and fatigue, may be ranked among the highest gratifications of our nature! At such a moment, a draught of sangaree approaches nearer, perhaps, to god-like nectar, than any other known liquor. It consists of half Madeira wine, and half water, acidulated with the fragrant lime, sweetened with sugar, and flavored with nutmeg. A stronger sort of it is sometimes drank under the superlative name of *sangrorum*. This differs from the former, only in containing a greater proportion of wine.

“The too prevalent English custom of *sending away* the ladies, or, according to the politer term, of the ladies *retiring* after dinner, for the gentlemen to *enjoy* their bottle, prevails also at Barbadoes; and, we have thought, even to a greater extreme than in England. They leave us very soon after dinner, and, often, we see no more of them during the evening. Frequently they do not, even, join us before dinner; but we find them all assembled, at the head of the table, when we enter the dining-room; and, even there, we have little of their company, for the party is often so badly arranged, that we have scarcely more of the society of the ladies, and the people of the island, than if we had remained on board ship. Instead of the different persons being, pleasantly, intermixed, it is too com-

mon

mon to see the ladies grouped together in a crowd at the upper end of the table—the officers and strangers, just arrived from Europe, placed at one side—and the gentlemen of the island, who are mutual and familiar acquaintances, at the other side—implying that it is considered a rule of politeness to place each person nearest to those with whom he is best acquainted. But this arrangement confines the conversation of each person, too much, to those with whom he is in the daily habit of associating. To me, it is always a disappointment, for I can converse with my comrades in my usual round, when strangers are not nigh; but, when thrown into society, in a foreign country, I always feel a desire for the conversation of the people residing therein, expecting to obtain information from them, both of the country itself, and of the manners and customs of its inhabitants.

“The attendants at the dinner table are very numerous. In addition to those of the family, almost every gentleman has his own slave; and, thus, it often happens that the room is quite crowded with sable domestics, whose surfaces emit an odour not less savory than the richest dishes of the board. How long it may be before our olfactories become reconciled to this high-seasoning of a West India feast I cannot conjecture; but, at present, we find it extremely offensive.—Poor Master is particularly annoyed by it, and always takes care to obtain a seat as much to windward as possible. Cleghorn and myself suffer no less from a most filthy custom of the negroes—of taking a plate from the side-board, before it is wanted, and standing with it under the arm, ready to give it the moment a change is required. On

account of this dirty habit, we are obliged to attend with eagle watchfulness to avoid receiving as a clean one, a plate which a slave has been holding for some time closely pressed to, certainly, not the sweetest part of his naked skin.

“In its supply of fresh provisions, particularly what is here termed stock, such as poultry and the like, Barbadoes exhibits a degree of plenty unknown in the neighbouring islands. This would seem to be the happy effect of allowing the slaves to raise poultry for sale; together with there being a number of small settlers, distributed about the country, who find their support chiefly in breeding stock for the markets. Poultry has been our principal food. Turkies, guinea fowls, and chickens, we have had in great abundance. When we arrived, in the month of February, they were sold in the public market at little more than a bit (about 5½d.) per pound, but from the increased demand consequent upon the arrival of so many troops, and such crowds of shipping, the price is now raised to nearly double. The Moscovy ducks are also bred in great numbers upon the island, and are so large as to appear like geese, when dressed for the table. Next to poultry they have veal and pork in the greatest plenty. In Bridge-town they have also a fish-market, which at times is well supplied, but not so regularly, as, from the insular situation of the country, might be expected,

“Of the immense quantity of poultry raised on this little island, you will form some idea, when I tell you that not only the ships of war, and the transports, but most of the West India trading ships, recruit their stock at Barbadoes; and that in addition to this constant

and

and extensive drain it furnishes occasional supplies to the other islands. Since we have been in Carlisle bay, we have seen, at various times, great quantities of stock shipped for the island of Martinique.

“In point of clothing the people of Barbadoes deviate less from the habits of England than the difference of climate would seem to warrant. Their dress resembles that worn in our more northern latitude, being for the most part a cloth coat, with white cotton waistcoat, and nankeen pantaloons. In some instances people of very active employment, or those who are much exposed in the fields, have the whole suit made of nankeen. Their night-clothing seems more appropriate to the greater heat of climate than the apparel of the day. It is common to sleep on a hard mattress in a long cotton shirt, without any other covering, except in the coolest season, when they make the slight addition of a simple cotton sheet.

“One of the most prominent characteristics of the island is the tedious languor in which the people of Barbadoes pronounce their words. Nothing perhaps is more annoying to strangers. To convey to you, by the pen, any idea of their manner of speaking is utterly impossible: to be comprehended, it must be heard. The languid syllables are drawled out as if it were a great fatigue to utter them; and the tortured ear of an European grows irritable and impatient in waiting for the end of a word, or a sentence. ‘How you do to da—ay,’ spoken by a Barbadian Creole, consumes nearly as much time as might suffice for all the compliments of the morning! Nor is this wearisome pronunciation confined to the people of colour

only. It occurs, likewise, among the whites, particularly those who have not visited Europe, or resided for some time away from the island. In the same lengthened accent do the lower orders of Barbadians, in unrestrained impetuous rage, pour forth volleys of uncommonly dreadful oaths, which, in their horrible combinations and epithets, form imprecations so strikingly impious, as to entitle them to the *merit* of peculiarity.

“In manner, also, and in movement, as well as in speech, a degree of indolence and inaction prevails, beyond what might be expected, merely from heat of climate, and which has in it a something extremely annoying to Europeans.

“The state of the negroes in Barbadoes varies, as the state of slaves must ever do, according to the disposition and circumstances of the master. Under such benevolent and humane characters as Mr. Waith, and many others whom we have visited, they may justly feel themselves a favored race, for their situation might be envied by the poor of nations, where freedom is better known! But under severe and cruel masters it becomes a state of ceaseless vexation and misery.

“On the very important question of general slavery I do not feel that my experience, hitherto, in the West Indies either warrants me to speak with confidence, or enables me to judge with accuracy. But I will take care to note for you such facts as, from time to time, shall occur to my observation; and may some day, perhaps, obey your commands, by giving you the reflections they create in a separate letter.

“Very much to the discredit of
K Barbadoes,

Barbadoes, numbers of old, diseased decrepit negroes, at once objects of compassion and of horror, are seen lying at the corners, or begging about the streets. This, like the toleration of the swarms of mendicants in England, is an evil, and a nuisance, for which there is no excuse. If these poor unfortunate negroes are free, they should be relieved by a general tax upon the island: if slaves, the law should compel every master to provide for his own. Should the laws of humanity be insufficient, and those of justice inadequate, a law of coercion should constrain the unfeeling owner to protect and cherish the being whose youth and vigour have been expended for his benefit; and who, having worn out his days in the heavy toils of bondage, is grown aged and infirm?

“What can be so unworthy! what so culpable or disgraceful, as the cruel inhumanity and sordid injustice, which render a master capable of neglecting in old age, the slave from whom he has exacted all the labour of youth, and all the vigor of manhood! Perhaps nothing portrays in more melancholy demonstration, the possible depravity of the human heart! No longer able to exert himself to his owner’s profit, the aged slave, enfeebled by years, and exhausted by toil, is left to beg his *yam* from door to door! abandoned by his cruel master, he is a pensioner upon promiscuous charity, or is allowed to fall a prey to disease, and to want!

“Without some compulsory law the slaves of the avaricious and of the lower orders, who are, themselves, scarcely removed from indigence, must ever be subject to this hard lot of neglect and cruelty.

“The first specimen we saw of

West India negroes—the first example of slaves was singularly calculated to impress us with sentiments of compassion and disgust. It occurred at the very moment too when the impression would be most powerful, and consequently will ever remain indelible. Immediately on our coming to anchor in Carlisle bay, a woman appeared alongside the ship in a small boat with some bad fruit, tobacco, salt fish, and other articles of traffic. She was rowed by two negroes, who, we learned, were her slaves. Two such objects of human form and human misery had never before met our eyes! They were feeble, meagre, and dejected; half-starved, and half-naked; and, in figure, too accurately resembling hungry and distempered grey-hounds!—They crouched upon their heels and haunches in the boat; their naked bones almost pierced their filthy and eruptive skins; their wasted frames trembled with debility; and while their hollow eyes and famished countenances rendered them ghastly images of horror, their whole appearance shocked humanity, and appalled the sight! Are these, we exclaimed, what are called slaves? Is this the state to which human beings are reduced in bondage? Afflicting and cruel indeed! Well may slavery be deemed a curse! Can it be possible that these spectres once were men? Are such the objects we are to see—are these the wretched and deplorable beings who are to appear every day and every hour before our eyes? Forbid it Humanity: forbid it Heaven!—Such was the apostrophe of the moment, and I feel a sincere gratification in being able to inform you that the melancholy subjects of this first impression were not correct specimens of the general

general mass of slaves. Still is it grievous that any such examples should be seen; but we hope to find them only rare instances: for we learn that the large gangs of negroes kept by the great merchants, and the planters, are generally treated with kindness and humanity, and appear contented and in comfort.

“ But it is easy to distinguish the slaves of the opulent and respectable inhabitants from those of the poor and needy people of the town. The latter, being in poverty themselves, can only give to their negroes a scanty allowance of food, while their indigence induces them to exact an over-proportion of labour. Hence the slaves of this class of people appear too often with sharp bones and hungry flavid countenances, having eruptions about the body, and their skins of an unhealthy obfuscate hue. Their general appearance indeed is dirty and unwholesome, and strikingly marks their neglected state. Want and wretchedness are deeply stamped in every line of their persons; and they may not inaptly be said to resemble the worn-out horse, or the starved and jaded ass, too often seen trembling under a heavy burden; or reeling in an old tattered cart upon the roads of England.

“ It is not the practice to load the slaves with superfluity of clothing. A shirt, and a pair of breeches, or only the latter, for the men; and a single petticoat for the women constitute the whole apparel. Bedding and bed-clothes find no place in their list of necessaries: they usually sleep on a hard plank, in the clothing of the day. Repose is both ensured and sweetened to them by labour; and the head needs no pillow but the arm. Some,

who by means of industry and œconomy, are more advanced in their little comforts, procure a kind of matting, a pailasse of plantain leaves, or some other species of bedding, to defend them from the rough plank; but this is an indulgence self-attained, not a necessary provided by the master. The architecture of their little huts is as rude as it is simple. A roof of plantain leaves, with a few rough boards, nailed to the coarse pillars which support it, forms the whole building. The leeward-side is commonly left in part open, and the roof projects to some distance over the door-way, forming a defence against both the sun and the rain.

“ Notwithstanding the great heat experienced by Europeans, the negroes feel the evenings chilly, and we frequently see them crowding round the bit of fire which they make for cooking their supper. This is commonly in the open air near to the door of the hut; but they sometimes place it upon the middle of the dirt floor within the building, where they seem to have great enjoyment in squatting round it, amidst the thick cloud of smoke, to whiff additional fumes from the short pipe or sagar, and to join in loud and merry song.

“ Smoking is an universal custom among them. In order to be at all moments provided for this enjoyment, they carry in their breeches pocket a short pipe, about an inch in length from the bowl; or instead of this a leaf of tobacco rolled into a sagar. Very often the pipe is so short, or the sagar so closely smoked away, as to be in danger of burning the nose, or even the lips. I have frequently seen them smoking with the pipe so short as to hold it in the mouth by pressing

with the lips upon the lower part of the bowl. They often kindle their pipes from one another's mouths, by putting bowl to bowl and nose to nose, and smoking into each others eyes, until the tobacco has taken fire.

"The food of the negroes is issued to them weekly, under the inspection of the manager. It is very simple and but little varied; breakfast, dinner, and supper being similar to each other, and for the most part, the same throughout the year. It consists mostly of Guinea corn, with a small bit of salt meat, or salt fish. Formerly a bunch of plantains was given to each slave as the weekly allowance; but the plantain walks being mostly worn out, this is become an expensive provision. Rice, maize, yams, eddoes, and sweet potatoes form an occasional change, but the Guinea corn is, commonly, issued as the weekly supply; and in order to obtain some variety of food, they barter this in exchange for other provisions, or sell it for money, and with that they buy salt meat or vegetables. We occasionally see them offering the Guinea corn for sale; and on being asked why they sell it, they thus express themselves—'Me no like for have him Guinea corn always! Massa gib me Guinea corn too much; Guinea corn to-day; Guinea corn to-morrow; Guinea corn eb'ry day; Me no like him Guinea corn; Him Guinea corn no good for gnhyam.'

"The weekly supply being issued to them on the Sunday, it becomes their own care how to husband it so as to have a sufficiency of food until the following Sabbath. Those who are industrious have little additions of their own, either from vegetables grown on the spot of ground allotted to them,

or purchased with the money obtained for the pig, the goat, or other stock raised about their huts in the negro yard.

"A mess of pottage, or very hot soup, called pepper-pot, is one of their favorite dishes, and one indeed which is generally esteemed by the inhabitants, and by strangers. It is prepared by stewing various kinds of vegetables with a bit of salt meat, or salt fish, and seasoning it very high with capsicum, or some species of red pepper. The vegetable called squashes is much used in these pepper-pots. Bread, which is esteemed so essential, and held as the staff of life by the people of Europe, is unknown among the slaves of the West Indies: nor, indeed, is it in common use among their masters, but they find very excellent substitutes in the yam, the cassada, and the eddoe.

"The common round of labour of the slaves is from sun-rise to sun-set, having intervals of rest allowed them at the times of breakfast and dinner.

"The negroes are generally sad thieves; they appear to know no sense of honesty. Ignorant of all moral principle, they steal without feeling any sense of wrong, and without any apprehension, except that of being detected. The planters are obliged to employ one or two of the most trusty of them in the capacity of watchmen, to guard, by close and constant attention, the orchards, plantain walks, provision stores, and the like, from the depredations of their own and their neighbours' slaves. Although they have no remorse in stealing whensoever and wheresoever opportunity offers, still they feel peculiarly prone to robbing their masters; and this they do not even consider

consider a theft, as is too evident among them, viz. "Me no tief by an expression very common him : Me take him from Massa."

DESCRIPTION of a SLAVE SALE and of NATIVE INDIANS at
BERBISCHE.

[From the Same.]

"SINCE writing to you last, I have been present at the sale of a Dutch cargo of slaves, at the new town of Amsterdam. Many of the officers went from the fort to witness this degrading spectacle; and although my feelings had suffered from a similar scene at Demarara, I could not resist the novelty of observing the Dutch mode of proceeding in this sad traffic of human cattle.

"On arriving at the town, we were surprized to find it quite a holyday, or a kind of public fair. The sale seemed to have excited general attention, and to have brought together all the inhabitants of the colony. The planters came down from the estates with their wives and families all arrayed in their gayest apparel: the belles and beaux appeared in their Sunday suits: even the children were in full dress; and their slaves decked out in holyday clothes. It was quite a gala-day, and greater numbers of people were collected than we had supposed to have been in the colony. Short jackets, with tawdry wide-flowered petticoats, and loose Dutch slippers, formed the prevailing dress of the females. Scarlèt, crimson, and poppy, with all the bright colours used in a northern winter, rivalled a tropical sun, and reigned conspicuous in the flaming broad-patterned petticoat. To the inhabitants it seemed a day of feasting and hilarity, but

to the poor Africans it was a period of heavy grief and affliction; for they were to be sold as beasts of burden—torn from each other—and widely dispersed about the colony, to wear out their days in the hopeless toils of slavery.

"The fair being opened, and the crowd assembled, these unfortunated beings were exposed to the hammer of public auction. A long table was placed in the middle of a large room, or logis. At one end was seated the auctioneer: at the other was placed a chair for the negroes to stand upon, in order to be exposed to the view of the purchasers; who were sitting at the sides of the table, or standing about the different parts of the room. All being in readiness, the slaves were brought in, one at a time, and placed upon the chair before the bidders, who handled and inspected them, with as little concern as if they had been examining cattle in Smithfield market. They turned them about, felt of them, viewed their shape and their limbs, looked into their mouths, made them jump and throw out their arms, and subjected them to all the means of trial as if dealing for a horse, or any other brute-animal. Indeed the indelicacy shewn towards the poor defenceless Africans, by some of these dealers in their species, was not less unmanly and disgusting than it was insulting to humanity.

"We were shocked to observe women in the room who had come to the fair for the express purpose of purchasing slaves. Nay, even children were brought to point the lucky finger, and the boy or girl, thus chosen, was bought by papa at the request of superstitious mama, to give to young Massa or Missy!

"The price of these poor degraded blacks varied from 600 to 900 guilders, according to their age and strength, or their appearance of being healthy or otherwise.—The boys and girls were sold for 600 or 700 guilders; some of the men fetched as high as 900; and the women were knocked down at about 800.

"In the course of the sale, a tall and robust negro, on being brought into the auction-room, approached the table with a fine negress hanging upon his arm. The man was ordered to mount the chair. He obeyed, though manifestly with reluctance. His bosom heaved, and grief was in his eye. The woman remained in the crowd. A certain price was mentioned to set the purchase forward, and the bidding commenced: but on the slave being desired to exhibit the activity of his limbs, and to display his person, he sunk his chin upon his breast, and hung down his head in positive refusal; then, looking at the woman, made signs expressive of great distress. Next he pointed to her, and then to the chair, evidently intimating that he desired to have her placed by his side. She was his chosen wife, and nature was correctly intelligible. Not obtaining immediate acquiescence, he became agitated and impatient. The sale was interrupted, and as he could not be prevailed upon to move a single muscle by way of ex-

hibiting his person, the proceedings were at a stand. He looked again at the woman; again pointed to the chair; held up two fingers to the auctioneer, and implored the multitude in anxious suppliant gestures. Upon his countenance was marked the combined expression of sorrow, affection, and alarm. He grew more and more restless, and repeated signs which seemed to say, 'Let us be sold together. Give me my heart's choice as the partner of my days, then dispose of me as you please, and I will be content to wear out my life in the heavy toils of bondage.' It was nature that spake, and her language could not be mistaken! Humanity could no longer resist the appeal, and it was universally agreed that they should make but one lot. A second chair was now brought, and the woman was placed at the side of her husband. His countenance instantly brightened. He hung upon the neck of his wife, and embraced her with rapture; then folding her in his arms, and pressing her to his bosom, he became composed; and looked round with a smile of complacency, which plainly said 'Proceed! I am yours, yours, or yours! Let this be the associate of my toils, and I am satisfied.' The bidding was renewed! They exhibited marks of health and strength, and quickly the two were sold together for 1650 guilders.

"'Enough!'—you will say. 'Give me no more of slaves, nor of slavery!' For the present I obey, and, leaving the dusky Africans, proceed to introduce you to the copper-colored Indians; thus, leading you to the opposite extreme of human life, and placing you among those of our species, who spurn alike the shackles of slavery, and the slavish

slavish trammels of society. I have lately had an opportunity of seeing several parties of the wild and naked inhabitants of these woods; men who range, at large, in the fullest freedom of nature; neither suffering their liberty to be effaced by bondage, nor abridged by civilization. Being one day at the town of New Amsterdam with the acting surgeon of the garrison, we took a walk down to the Bush, on the border of the creek or river Kannye. Nigh to the water we met with a party of Indians, and observing that they made no attempt to avoid us, we went so near to them as to mix in the group. We found them engaged in various pursuits; and remarked that none of their occupations suffered any interruption from our presence. A woman and her son, who were in the river, continued to bathe before us, and seemed greatly to enjoy the water. Some were cutting wood for firing—some collecting the Bush-water with a calabash, for the purpose of drinking, or of cooking—some, with their pot of baked clay upon the fire, were stewing crabs, together with capsicum and cassada juice into pepper-pot—and some were eating the raw tops of the mountain cabbage. To the latter I held forth my hand, implying a desire to partake of their repast. They immediately gave me a part; and seemed pleased on observing me eat of it. A better salad I never tasted. It was very crisp and white, much superior to the best lettuce or endive; and, in flavour, somewhat resembling the filbert. Perceiving that they were not incommoded by our society, we remained a considerable time attentively watching their proceedings; but their curiosity was not

commensurate with our own, for they scarcely looked at us, or appeared to be, in any degree, interested concerning us. With indifference they saw us approach; they regarded us with indifference whilst we remained; and with indifference they witnessed our departure.

“Two days after, I saw a much larger party of Indians, who came to the Government-house to ask for rum, as a compensation for cutting down timber: and the same evening, on walking towards the creek with some of the officers, we met with a still more numerous body of these inhabitants of the forest, who had been employed by the governor to cut down wood preparatory to clearing the land near the town for cultivation. They were busied in packing up all their little store of implements and utensils, in order to return to their native abode in the woods. Bows and arrows, apparatus for preparing cassada, the clay cooking-vessel, hammocks, calabashes, and crab-baskets constituted their whole list of stores and furniture. All these were light in structure, or made of light materials, and, being arranged in compact order, were easily carried on their backs. The women were made to bear the burden; while the men took no share of the load. One man, who had three wives, very neatly packed upon their backs, the whole of what he had to carry away; then taking up a long staff, he marched on before with lordly step, the wives following him in silent train, one after another. We walked gently behind a party of about forty as far as the creek, and there saw some of them embark in their canoes, and paddle up the river, while the others took a narrow path

leading into the depths of the forest; and presently the whole body of them were out of sight, leaving not a trace of their visit behind.

“They come down, occasionally, in parties, and enter into an engagement to cut wood for a certain compensation; but no dependance can be placed upon them for a single day, for they sometimes pack up all belonging to them, and return suddenly and unexpectedly into the woods; from whence they come not again for several months, perhaps not at all. They are naturally indolent, and, being tenacious of freedom, they become impatient of the restraint imposed by daily labour; wherefore, they hastily cast it off, and fly back to the woods to range in their native liberty, which knows no bounds, nor controul. From possessing a degree of expertness in the felling of timber, they might be highly useful in forwarding the cultivation of the colony; but they have no sense of industry, nor do they seem to acquire the least disposition to emulate the colonists in any of their pursuits: content with finding food and pepper in the woods, they have no ambition to become planters. Cotton is not necessary to protect their naked skins; nor are their appetites so refined as to require either coffee or sugar.

“At the fort we have also had a visit from an Indian family, who came to us in the true style of native accommodation, exhibiting the full equipage of the family canoe, and forming a scene of high

interest and novelty. Before the canoe reached the fort, we observed the long black hair and naked skins of the man, his two wives, and several children, who were all stowed about the vessel with the strictest attention to equipage, *trimming* it most exactly. The canoe was large, and, in addition to the family, was loaded with cedar and other kinds of wood for sale or barter. On the top of the cargo appeared a ferocious-looking animal, setting up his bristles like the quills of the porcupine. It was a species of wild hog caught in the forest, and hence called a *bush-hog*. A small monkey was likewise skipping about the canoe. At one side sat two very fine parrots, and on the other was perched a large and most beautiful mackaw, exhibiting all the rich splendour of his gay plumage. On the canoe arriving at the landing place, the bow and arrows, the clay cooking-vessel, calabashes, hammocks, and crab-baskets, were all brought into view, and we gazed on the whole, as forming a very complete and striking specimen of original equipage and accommodation. The whole family—the household apparatus—the bow and arrows—the canoe and paddles—the hammocks—in short all the furniture and implements for cooking, for sleeping, for shooting, fishing, and travelling were here moved together in one compact body, so as to render it indifferent to them, whether they should return to the home from whence they came, or take up a new abode in any other part of the forest.”

CLIMATE, PRODUCTIONS and CUSTOMS of SHETLAND.

[From Mr. NEIL'S TOUR through the ISLANDS of ORKNEY and SHETLAND.]

"Aug. 26. **E**ARLY in the morning I found that we were off Noness Head in Shetland, having had a favorable breeze through the night. The general aspect of the country, as we coasted along towards Lerwick, was hilly, bleak, and steril. At 9, we anchored in Brassay Sound, opposite to Lerwick. It being Sunday, the colours were displayed from Fort Charlotte, a fortress situated to the north of the town. We had scarcely landed, when some of the inhabitants asked of me, whether we were direct from *Scotland*?—a question that rather surprised me, as seeming to imply that the Shetland islands themselves did not constitute a part of that country. In Lerwick there is only one established church, and there are no dissenters. The church appeared to be well attended, and the common people were in general very neatly dressed.

"The town of Lerwick consists of one principal street next the quay, with several lanes branching off. No regularity has been observed in former times in the position of the houses, some of which project almost quite across the street. The general appearance of the town has of late years been much improved by several handsome houses built in the modern style. The town is computed to contain about 1000 inhabitants. Fort Charlotte is a great ornament to it. Several large cannon command the harbour and protect the town. This fortress is said to have been originally erected during the protectorate of Crom-

well: it was completely repaired, by order of government, in 1781, and named Fort Charlotte, after our gracious queen. At present (1804), it is garrisoned by a part of the 6th royal garrison battalion.

"Upon a little island in the midst of a fresh-water lake, about a mile west from Lerwick, are situated the remains of a Pictish fort, in a better state of preservation than most others that we saw in Shetland. It consists of a thick circular wall, inclosing an area of about thirty feet in diameter. In the wall itself, which is about twelve feet thick, are several oblong recesses or little chambers, ten or twelve feet in length, by three in width. No kind of cement or mortar appears to have been employed in these rude structures. All around the banks of this lake I found abundance of a dwarfish variety of *Jasione montana* (hairy sheep's scabious), both with blue and with white flowers. This is by no means a plant generally found in Scotland; but here it grows abundantly on all the dry turfs which form around half-sunk stones, or which project on grassy banks. Upon this little lake, one of the officers from Fort Charlotte, about this time, shot a truly northern bird, the red-throated diver (*Colymbus septentrionalis*), which was politely presented to me. The Shetlanders name it the *rain-goose*, its shrill and harsh call, as it flies along, being thought to prognosticate rain. The *black*-throated diver is generally seen in company with the *red*, and is perhaps the female. They breed in Shetland.

"Near

“Near Fort Charlotte there is a quarry of very hard sandstone breccia, in which vast numbers of large water-worn nodules of red granite, some of them (as remarked by the quarriers) most exactly resembling the common round Dutch cheeses, are compactly imbedded. About half a mile south from Lerwick, below a projecting eminence called the Knab*, at the entrance of Brassay Sound, several thick strata of sandstone have been exposed to view by the action of the sea. Imbedded in the upper strata of this sandstone, I observed a few scattered nodules of the same kind of granite. The lower strata are whiter, and are freestone, (i. e. may be hewn in any direction,) and are therefore quarried for the new buildings in Lerwick. On the grassy banks of the Knab, *Scilla verna* (vernal squill) grows in profusion. At this time I gathered some of the ripe seeds, which have since vegetated in one of the stoves of the Botanic Garden at Edinburgh. I also brought home some of the bulbs, which have grown freely. (April, 1805.) The vernal squill is considered as rather a rare plant in Scotland.

“The hills around Lerwick have a gloomy look, being but thinly clad with stunted heath, and many naked rocks appearing. The soil is a wet peat-turf, unfavourable to the vegetation of the better kinds of grasses, and yielding only a few of the coarser sorts, (such as *nardus stricta* and *festuca vivipara*) mixed with carices and dwarfish rushes. There are two chalybeate springs in the neighbourhood of

the town; one somewhat stronger than the other, but neither highly impregnated.

“At Lerwick there is a straw-plaiting manufactory, but not on so extensive a scale as that at Kirkwall. When we visited it, more than fifty girls were at work, in two rooms, which however were rather crowded. They receive 1d. per yard, and can make, as we are told by the manager, from 12 to 16 or even 20 yards a day. This manufactory is carried on by a London company. Before its introduction, there was no kind of manufacture in Lerwick, in which young women could advantageously exert their industry; the knitting of stockings being only a waste of time.

“Mackerel were at this time very common at Lerwick, and were sold very cheap. Eggs were brought aboard to us in Lerwick Roads, at 2d. a dozen; but they were very small, even the poultry partaking of the diminutive size of all the domestic animals of Shetland.

At Lerwick, and indeed throughout Shetland, Dutch and Danish coins are more common than British. A stuer, or stiver, (a small piece of base metal silvered over,) passes in circulation for one penny; the Danish 6-skilling passes for 5d. &c.

“Aug. 27.—We visited Brassay island, which lies immediately over against Lerwick. All along the western shore of this island, sea-beet (*beta maritima*) grows naturally in great plenty; together with Danish scurvy-grass (*cochlearia Danica*.) Intermixed with these we observed many strong

* From Fort Charlotte to this point, called the Knab, Government has caused a road to be made, by means of which cannon could be brought hither in the course of a few minutes; and here they would effectually command the southern entrance of Brassay Sound, at least against an enemy's cruiser or privateer.

stems of wheat and of white oats, which had sprung from seeds accidentally cast ashore. In a gentleman's garden here too, we observed that several shewy annuals had reached perfection in the open border, particularly convolvulus tricolor (coloured bindweed) and crepis rubra (red hawkweed). *Jasione montana* and *scilla verna* are very common natives of this island. Near the church of Brassay are situated the quarries which supply the town of Lerwick with slates. These quarries consist of beds of laminar micaceous schistus. Such slates may make a very secure roof; but it must also of necessity be a ponderous one. Great quantities of black compact peats are dug from the mosses of Brassay, and sold to the inhabitants of Lerwick.

"This island forms the eastern protection of Brassay Sound, the safe and commodious harbour or roadstead of Lerwick, where, it is believed, the whole British navy might ride in safety. Brassay Sound is the resort, in time of peace, of several hundred Dutch busses, which annually rendezvous here at the beginning of June, preparatory to the herring-fishery.

"On the 28th of August we left Brassay Sound, in a large open boat, for Unst, the most northerly of the Shetland islands. In passing out by the north en-

trance of the sound, the site of the Unicorn rock was pointed out to us; but it was at this time covered by the sea. When Bothwell was driven to extremities, he, as is well known, commenced pirate. Kirkaldy of Grange was sent in pursuit of him, in a vessel called the Unicorn. While Kirkaldy entered Brassay Sound by the south, Bothwell narrowly escaped by sailing out at the north entrance. Bothwell's pilots, it is said, had the cunning to sail very close by a sunk rock, with which they were familiar; thus leading their pursuers, who, in the hurry of the chase, would naturally follow their track, to a hazard which actually proved fatal to them, and which ensured the escape of the unhappy fugitive. Since that day, this rock has received the name of the Unicorn. This tradition is uniform and general, and may, I believe, be depended on.

"While we scudded along with a favourable breeze, our boat's crew amused themselves with catching mackerel, which swim faster than any other small fish, and may therefore be caught while a vessel is running at the rate of seven or eight knots (or miles) an hour*. A pretty heavy weight is in such circumstances required to sink the lines to a proper depth. The bait at first employed on this occasion, was

* In fact mackerel are caught with most success in a breeze of wind: they always swim fast; and being rather a shy fish, the rapid motion of the bait is probably useful in deceiving them, and enticing them to hazard a bite: besides, the mackerel is proverbially fond of a gale: the fishermen in the north of Scotland have a foolish rhapsody which begins thus:

'The herring loves the merry moon-light,
And the mackerel likes the wind.'

A moderately stiff breeze is therefore sometimes termed a mackerel-gale. Dr. Johnson, *in verbo*, supposes that a mackerel-gale means a 'strong breeze, such as is desired to bring mackerel fresh to market:' but this, it is evident, cannot be the origin of the phrase, which is perfectly understood, where no such motive can possibly come into consideration.

was a bit of red woollen cloth ! after which the heart of the mackerel itself was preferred.

“ In the middle of the day we landed at Gossaburgh, in the island of Yell, and had some of our new-caught mackerel prepared for dinner. The fields here were so small in dimensions, that they appeared to us like little garden patches. Instead of a plough, a coarse kind of awkward spade is employed. As the men dig the fields with this spade ; the women and children, we are told, drag the harrows !— As in Orkney, so in Shetland, only the grey and black oat is cultivated ; and it is here mixed with a good deal of the wild oat with hygrometric awns, (*avena fatua*.) The white oat of the south is scarcely known. Bear, or bigg, is also raised here in considerable quantity. We saw some promising lazy-bed potatoes ; rather, however, too closely planted. During our short stay at this spot, I made a hurried visit to a heathy eminence in the neighbourhood. The ground was very wet and boggy, which, I believe, is the case with a great proportion of the pasture-ground of Yell. Most of the little pools shewed a scum of the oxide of iron ; and bog-iron-ore, of different degrees of consistence, is here a common production. *Narthecium ossifragum* (bastard asphodel) ; *Pinguicula vulgaris* (butterwort or sheep-rot) ; and *Pedicularis palustris* (marsh lousewort), were indeed too common. *Melica cœrulea* (purple melic) ; *Nardus stricta* (heath mat-weed) ; and *Festuca vivipara* (viviparous sheep’s-fescue), were the principal grasses ; together with *carices recurva*, *distans*, *panicæ*, &c. and some *junci* or rushes. To a mixture of all these, when heath is absent, the natives give the name

of lubba. The water-worn stones on the shore were chiefly of micaceous schistus, sometimes with the remains of small garnets ; with asbestos, serpentine, &c.

“ We reached Uyea Sound, in the island of Unst, early in the evening. Most of the rocks in this district of Unst are of the magnesian kind. The serpentine is finely variegated ; and its fresh fracture possesses such lustre, that the inhabitants call it jasper. The exterior of the rocks, however, is of a dull rusty hue, being altered or partly decomposed by the action of the weather. Pieces of pure white steatite are frequently found on the shore : these, I believe, the people call clemmil, and employ for drawing white lines on cloth or wood. Chlorite, imbedded in large masses of quartz, is also very common on the shore. A little way east from Uyea, great rocks of micaceous schistus appear, which are sometimes quarried for building, especially for lintel stones. Here a rude pillar of this schistus, rising about twelve feet from the ground, has, in former days, been erected, probably as a land-mark to vessels entering the harbour or roadstead of Uyea. In this remote and dreary country, we were somewhat surprised to find several handsome modern houses, with small gardens, gravel-walks, &c. in a neat style. The principal of these is Belmont, the seat of Mr. Mowat, of Garth.

“ The remote situation of the Shetland Islands, and the little intercourse they have, especially during winter, with the mother country, frequently render the inhabitants strangers for many weeks to the greatest national occurrences. It has often been alleged, that the Revolution in 1688 was not known in Shetland for six months after it happened.

happened. Thus Brand (Description of Zetland, 1701) says: 'The late Revolution, when his highness the prince of Orange, our present king, was pleased to come over to assert our liberties, and deliver us from our fears, falling out in the winter, it was May thereafter before they heard any thing of it in Zetland; and that first, they say, from a fisherman, whom some would have had arraigned before them, and impeached of high treason because of his news.' And to the same purpose Martin (Appendix to History of the Isles, 1703), copying and improving upon Brand, says: 'The Shetlanders had no account of the prince of Orange's late landing in England, coronation, &c. until a fisherman happened to land in these isles in May following; and he was not believed, but indicted for high treason for spreading such news.' But from an old letter in possession of Mr. Mowat, of Garth, it is proved, that this common report is without foundation, or at least is greatly exaggerated: for it hence appears, that before the 15th of December, 1688, the report of the prince of Orange's landing in England had accidentally reached Unst, the most northerly of the islands, though the fact of a Revolution having been effected, was not, probably, ascertained for some considerable time after. Having, with Mr. Mowat's permission, copied part of this letter, I shall give the exact words: '15th. December, 1688.—I can give no account of news, save only that the skipper of the wreckt ship confirms the former report of the prince of Orange his landing in England with an considerable number of men, bot upon what pretence I cannot condishend.' (Signed) 'And. Mowat.' (Addressed) 'To

the much honoured George Cheyne off Eslamonth.'—The prince landed at Torbay on the 5th of November, 1688.

"In the kitchen-gardens here, an uncommon kind of artichoke is cultivated. It has numerous but very small heads, scarcely larger than those of the common spear-thistle. The inhabitants think it more hardy than the large-headed kind, and also superior in flavour.

"In the neighbourhood of Belmont I had an opportunity of viewing a Shetland water-mill. It was truly an awkward piece of machinery. The wheel (a very trifling one) was placed horizontally instead of vertically; consequently it could do but little work. The mill-stone was of micaceous schistus.

"The gables of the cottages here, were at this season hung round with hundreds of small coal-fish, called piltocks, strung upon spits, and exposed to dry, without salt. The fishes dried in this manner are called scrae-fish.

"Never was I more surprised or shocked than to learn that there was no school in the whole island of Unst! The instruction of hundreds of children is thus in a great measure neglected; many of the parents being utterly incapable of communicating even the knowledge of alphabetic letters to their offspring. That an island of above twenty miles in circumference, and containing above 2000 inhabitants, should be destitute of a parochial school, is to me an inexplicable circumstance.

"Upon careful enquiry we learned that the Norwegian language is now finally extinct in Unst, where it subsisted longer than in any of the other islands: for we were repeatedly assured, that no farther

farther back than thirty years ago, there were 'several old people that spoke the Norns,' i. e. the Norse, or Norwegian tongue.

"Eagles, or erns (*falco abicilla*, and *falco ossifragus*), reside on the hills and bold precipices of Unst. The taminorie or puffin, and lyre or shear-water, breed here. The calloo (*anas glacialis*), named from its evening call, which resembles the sound calloo, calloo, arrives from the arctic regions in autumn, and spends the winter here. Great flocks of wild swans come at the same time; but these generally migrate farther south.

"It is curious that the common house-mouse has not yet found access to the island of Unst. The bat is quite unknown. The untravelled natives of Uyea had never seen either frogs or toads, and indeed had no idea of the appearance or nature of those animals.

"After spending some days in this extreme northern island of the British dominions, we again sailed to the southward. In the evening, after much tossing with a contrary wind, we landed in Yell, at a fine arm of the sea called Brough Voe. We viewed the Pecht's Brough, or little circular fort, which has given name to the place. It is nearly of the same dimensions and construction with the many other broughs or pechts-forts in Shetland, (one of which has already been described, p.153). These broughs seem to have been calculated to communicate by signals with each other; the site of one being uniformly seen from that of some other. A gen-

tleman of our party here procured a kind of rude stone bason, which was, some years ago, found among the rubbish in the Pechts-fort. It is shaped like a large soup-dish, or tureen, having two hollows for handles. Perhaps it is an old stone quern or vessel, in which grain used to be ground with a pestle*.

"Early next morning (Sep. 1.) we again set sail, and wafted by a fair breeze, before mid-day reached Lerwick roads, where we now found his majesty's frigate *La Chiffonne* lying at anchor.

"4th September, 1804.—We walked across Brassay Island, and paid a visit to Noss, to view the far-famed cradle of Noss. This island is situated to the east of Brassay, from which it is separated by a narrow channel. The tide was here running with considerable violence and velocity; yet the only ferry-boat we could procure was a miserable skiff, which could not without difficulty convey two passengers at a time. The two boatmen afforded us a remarkable instance of stupid apathy, which we were apt to ascribe to that state of oppressive degradation so feelingly described by Pennant, Knox, and others. We observed that one of the boat-men was nottugging at his oar halfso busily as the other, and consequently that the boat was turning to the one side: upon remonstrating with the sluggish ferryman, he, instead of quickening his motions, made a full pause, and hung on his oar gaping with surprize: the other meanwhile continued tugging away as hard as ever; nor did he

* The same gentleman was presented, while in Shetland, with a kind of stone knife, or cutting instrument, which was found in clearing away part of a Pecht's-house. This knife is formed of a thin piece of spotted greenish steatite, of considerable induration. Both it and the stone bason have been deposited in the Museum of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland.

observe what he was doing till he was alarmed by the boat wheeling about, and almost completing a circle; and all this in the midst of a boiling current, and about equally distant from either shore.

“The island of Noss is wholly the property of Mr. Mowat, of Garth. It forms one large farm. Mr. Copland, the tenant, kindly offered to accompany us to Noss Head, where we might have a near view of the holm, or islet, to which access is had by the celebrated cradle. This holm is situated on the south-east side of Noss, and is immediately exposed to the ocean. Although its sides are every where perfectly precipitous, its surface forms a pretty extensive flat, which is thickly covered with grass. Mr. Pennant has, in his ‘Introduction to the Arctic Zoology,’ given a representation of this holm; but it is by no means an accurate one. He has even gone so far wrong as to mention Orkney as the site of the Noss holm, instead of Shetland. In the description too, several things are mistaken or exaggerated. The height of the precipitous rock is great, probably from 160 to 200 feet; but certainly Mr. Pennant more than doubles it, when he states it as 480 feet. The chasm over which the cradle is run, is indeed, to use Mr. Pennant’s words, ‘of matchless horror;’ the swelling billows of the ocean frequently sweeping round the holm on both sides, and meeting each other with the most tumultuous collision. The width of the chasm is more than a hundred feet. The cradle is a kind of oblong box, strong, and of very coarse workmanship, having two round holes at each end, through which the cable is passed, by which the box is suspended. Mr.

Pennant is mistaken in thinking that the cradle serves only to enable the natives to get at the eggs or young of the gulls; had this been all the object, that machine (considered as a very expensive one in Shetland) would never have been erected. The fact is, that they annually transport thither in June, by means of the cradle, a certain number of sheep, which they take out in November in excellent condition. This kind of cradle has here been employed beyond the memory of man. It is accurately described in Brand’s *Account of Zetland*, Edin. 1701, and in the Appendix to Martin’s ‘Description of the Islands,’ &c. Lond. 1703. It is mounted and dismounted twice a year, in order to save the rope or cable from the action of the weather. I had no opportunity at this season, therefore, of seeing it used.

“We now ascended the peak of Noss, a lofty eminence in the neighbourhood of the holm. Upon charts this peak is named Hang-cliff; a name unknown to the natives, and which, it is believed, was first imposed by sir Joseph Banks, when on his voyage to Iceland. It is, perhaps, more than twice the height of Noss holm, and yet from the sea to the summit, the rock is perfectly mural. At some points, however, even the timid may advance without difficulty, so as to see the white foam of the waves below, which here seemed diminutive and noiseless, but which we knew to be far otherwise. The scarfs or corvorants, which sat on the ledges of the rock near the sea, appeared to us no larger than blackbirds. The many successive sandstone strata composing the cliff, are here most excellently seen.

“Noss

“ Noss island is chiefly pasture, and in general good pasture. Here we were presented with the best milk and butter we had seen in Shetland. Mr. Copland complained that a prejudice existed against Shetland butter, which prevented him from exporting it to Leith, and other ports of the south. This prejudice arises from table-butter being confounded with grease-butter, which however are two entirely distinct articles of Shetland produce. The prejudice is quite unfounded; for the table-butter of Noss Island would stand a comparison with any butter made in the Lothians. The milch-cows, however, are here rather of a diminutive size, and yield but a small quantity of milk. Even in July and August, when the pasture is best, they give only about 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ pints a day; while a good milch cow in the southern counties of Scotland will give from 12 to 14 pints a day. The tenant of Noss pays 50*l.* of rent for the whole island, and is allowed to exert himself in the fishing of tusk and ling for his own behoof. This is a great improvement: tenants throughout Shetland being generally taken, bound to deliver their fish to the landlord at a stipulated rate, below the market-value, and being absolutely prohibited from themselves carrying them to the best market. Even the tenant of Noss, however, has not been able to procure a lease of that duration that would encourage him to make permanent improvements. Two or three years bound the lease.

“ 5th September, 1804.—We this day paid a visit to Scalloway, formerly the capital of Shetland, the seat of justice, and the occasional residence of the earls of Orkney and Zetland. In going

thither we resolved, in order to see the country, to pass directly across the hills, westward from Lerwick, instead of proceeding by the usual track through Tingwall. The hills here are excessively wet and swampy, and to travel but a few miles over them becomes very fatiguing. We had frequently to fetch circuits around stagnant pools or deceitful marshes. We passed a large lake among the hills, where we found soldiers from Fort Charlotte fishing for trout: the kind of trout caught here seems to be the sea-trout (*salmo trutta*): they are often got of a large size: they have probably forced their way up the outlet of the lake when swollen during some very rainy season, and have been afterwards unable to make good their regress to the sea. At present, there is no apparent communication of the lake with the sea.

“ After wandering for several hours over the most bleak and barren hills, which presented no botanical rarity, but yielded only a few of the coarser plants that are commonly found on moist moors, we at length caught a distant glance of the castle of Scalloway, at the bottom of a fine valley below us. The castle stands on the brink of an arm of the sea, which being protected from the rage of the ocean by a number of little islands, Burra, Tondra, Oxna, Papa, and several holms, forms a safe natural harbour. The town of Scalloway consists only of a few scattered houses in the neighbourhood of the castle. Only one of these is genteel or in the modern style: this is the house of Mr. Scott of Scalloway. Around it is a neat garden, in which we observed several small fruit and timber trees, and different shrubs

shrubs, all of which are rare things in this part of the world. The castle of Scalloway (to borrow the words of Mr. Giffard of Busta) 'has been a very handsome tower-house, with fine vaulted cellars and kitchen, with a well in it; a beautiful spacious entry, with a turret upon each corner, and large windows.' It was built above two centuries ago. The erection of such a building in so poor a country, must have been attended with the most oppressive exactions of services and contributions. The memory of the founder, earl Patrick Stewart, is, for this reason, still held in detestation by the natives. The whole edifice has been long unroofed, and is now in a state of irremediable decay. The stair seems to have been taken away by the inhabitants of Scalloway when in want of stones for building. Had not the building been originally very strong, it could not so long have withstood the vicissitudes of a Shetland climate. Over the main door is an inscription, the first part of which is still perfectly legible, and savours not a little of the egotism and vanity of the founder, viz. 'Patricius, Orcadum et Zetlandiæ comes.' The lower part of the inscription is nearly obliterated by the action of the weather; but may thus be decyphered: 'Cujus fundamen saxum, domus illa manebit: labilis, e contrâ, si arena, perit.' During the time of the Commonwealth it was occupied as barracks by a party of Cromwell's soldiers, to whom, it is said, the inhabitants were indebted for several improvements, particularly the culture of cabbages.

"There is no inn or public house at Scalloway. We easily, however, procured eggs and milk, but could get no bread of any kind; indeed, 1806.

throughout Shetland, at this time, bread was only to be seen in the houses of the more wealthy. Potatoes, however, of good quality, were presented as a substitute; and we understood that, in the district of Scalloway, they have generally an excellent and an abundant crop of this excellent root.

"From Scalloway we proceeded up a fine dry valley to Tingwall. It seemed to be the best land, and was loaded with the richest crops we had seen in Shetland; and the corns were now ready for cutting. The whole valley has a bottom of rich primitive limestone, of a pale blue colour; none of which, as far as we could learn, has ever been wrought, though peat-fuel is here abundant. At one place we observed that a ditch having been dug, had exposed a bed of good marl: this too, however, was utterly neglected. In the pastures in this pleasant district, there is a good deal of natural clover, both red and white (*trifolium medium* and *trifolium repens*); but these pastures are infested to an uncommon degree, with the plant called sneezewort, (*achillea ptarmica*); indeed I do not recollect ever to have seen elsewhere such quantities of that plant growing in one place. Much, it may easily be believed, might be done to increase the fertility and value of the vale of Scalloway. Instead of granting leases for a certain number of years, one of the principal proprietors chooses rather to stipulate for one half of all that is produced on the ground, without taking any part whatever in the expence or management of seed or labour:—a worse plan, either for landlord or tenant, could scarce perhaps be devised. The new church of Tingwall is situated near the head or north end of a lake

in this valley, and from some points of view, forms the termination of a very beautiful prospect. The name Tingwall, it is believed, signifies in Norwegian, ‘the place of the court;’ and on inquiry, we were told, that on a small green island in a fresh water lake near the church, there is a mound surrounded by large stones, on which, as tradition reports, justice was formerly administered, and which still retains among the natives the name of the law-ting. A range of stepping-stones leading through the most shallow part of the lake to this green holm, remains to this day: and these stones are of such size as to evince more than ordinary exertion and expence in placing them there.

“In returning to Lerwick, we travelled along the whole stretch of the only properly-made road in Shetland, the joint work of Mr. Ross, of Sound, and of the late Mr. Scott, of Scott’s-hall. This road passes over a mossy hill between 200 and 300 feet above the level of the sea. Even on the highest part of the hill, we observed that the covering of the peat-moss is ten or twelve feet thick, the road being cut through it. The peat-moss is of a kind that is very spongy, and very retentive of water: for wherever it has fallen down upon the road, it has formed a miry sludge.

“In ascending this hill, we had a prospect of the eastern boundary of Tingwall valley. It terminates in

an arm of the sea called Laxforth Voe. The gentleman, whom the writer of this account had the pleasure to accompany at this time, happening to understand a good deal of the Norwegian language, inquired if salmon were ever caught there, as *lax*, in that language, signifies salmon; and he was informed that they were more frequently found there than any where else in Shetland. Laxforth, or Lax-feort, is therefore a significant name, and means the Bay of Salmon.

“After the 6th of September, it was too late in the year to attempt to visit other parts of Shetland which we at first had in view. At this season, sudden and violent gales are here to be expected, which render travelling between the islands both disagreeable and dangerous, if not impracticable. In returning to Orkney we met with a pretty hard gale, which produced a most tumultuous sea. We passed at no great distance the lofty and precipitous Fair Isle, on which, it is generally believed, the duke de Medina Sidonia, in the flag-ship of the Invincible Armada, was wrecked in 1588, in attempting to return to Spain by sailing north round the Orkneys. Many marine birds still kept the sea, tempestuous as it was; particularly razor-bills, shearwaters, and if we mistake not, skua-gulls, large brown birds*. We were detained two days in the Orkneys, by a dreadful gale from the S. W.: although after this, the

* The Skua (*Larus cataractes*), though scarcely known in the south of Britain, is doubtless a distinct species. Its bill is considerably hooked at the point, and the upper mandible is partly covered with a cere in the manner of the eagle. The plumage is almost wholly brown. It has very strong hooked talons like the eagle, and it is a very bold bird. It grows to a large size, being inferior only to the *Larus marinus*, or great black-backed gull. Its principal breeding-place is the island of Foulah; but it breeds also in the Fair Isle, and in one or two other places. The Shetlanders call it the Bonxie.

wind had entirely ceased, we found that we had to encounter what the sailors termed a 'heavy head-sea,' which had been 'set down' by the preceding gale, and which produced a tumbling motion of the vessel, very apt to occasion nausea. A favourable breeze, however, soon sprung up, and carried us forward in what seamen term 'great style;' so that on the evening of the second day after leaving Orkney, we passed the May light, at the mouth of the Frith of Forth, and got sight of the new light-house on Inch Keith, which had been recently finished, and appeared at this time exceedingly brilliant.

"A few general remarks on Shetland, and especially on the condition of the people, shall next be given; and with these we shall conclude.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON SHETLAND.

"Tea.—The families of the Shetland cottars or little farmers, however poor, are very partial to tea. Happening to enter on a Sunday evening a miserable boothie, or cottage, about two miles from Lerwick, I was surprized to observe an earthen-ware tea-pot, of small dimensions, simmering on a peat-fire; while in this very cottage, they told me they had not tasted any kind of bread for two months! Considering the indigestible and poor quality of their common food, (dried fish, often semi-putrescent, and coarse red cabbage); it is to be regretted that they are not encouraged to spend their scanty pittance of money on some more substantial and nutritive delicacy.

"Piltocks.—These are the coal-fish (*gadus carbonarius*) in the second year of its growth. In size they seldom exceed a herring.

They are caught in myriads. In coasting along the different islands, we frequently observed an old man, and perhaps one or two boys, seated on a projecting rock, holding in each hand a wand or fishing-rod, and catching piltocks as fast as they could bait their hooks. The bait is limpets parboiled. The fisher keeps a few in his mouth, and baits his hook with one hand, assisted by his lips, by a single motion, with the greatest ease and rapidity. Now and then he squirts out a quantity of the oily matter of the chewed limpets upon the surface of the water, this being thought to be very attractive to the young coal-fish.

"In the course of the past year, when scarcity prevailed in Shetland to a most distressful degree, till partly relieved by the bounty of Government, these piltocks or coal-fish formed the principal food of the poorer inhabitants. Even in September, 1804, when, in some of the meanest cottages, I inquired what they generally had for breakfast, they answered, 'Piltocks.' What for dinner? 'Piltocks and cabbage.' What for supper? 'Piltocks.' Some of them declared they had not tasted oat-meal or bread for five months.

"Shell fish.—On the flat shores of the islands, a variety of edible shell-fish is found. Oysters are common in Basta Voe, Yell; and besides cockles, mussels, and razor-fish or spouts, they have abundance of what are called culleocks and smurlins. The culleock is the *Tellina rhomboides*; and the same name seems to be sometimes applied also to the *Venus Erycina*, and *Mactra solida*. The smurlin or smuthlin is the *Mya truncata*, remarkable for a shrivelled leathery process at one end. Both these

shell-fish are highly relished by the Shetlanders.

“Game.—Moor-fowl or grouse, which are common in Orkney, are not known in Shetland. The heath here is probably too stunted to afford them that shelter which they require.

“Trees—There are none in Shetland*. Trunks and branches, however, are found in the peat-mosses; and the remarks formerly made, p. 57. (and those in Appendix, note E.), on the practicability of raising wood in Orkney, are equally applicable to Shetland.

“Light-houses.—There are none in Shetland, although they are greatly wanted. One light-house upon the low rocks called the Skerries of Whalsey, would render secure nearly the whole east coast: while another on Papa Stour, would be equally useful on the west coast. Seafaring people, perfectly experienced in the navigation of the Shetland seas, pointed out these places as the most eligible. Were these lights erected, many shipwrecks would doubtless be prevented; and vessels would be enabled to approach the islands for shelter, in the darkest night, without dread. It should also be considered, that they would prove of the greatest advantage to the King’s vessels, some of which are almost constantly cruising between the Naze of Norway and Shetland.

“Packet.—The irregularity of the communication with the south is exceedingly unfavourable to commerce. The Post-office makes a

bargain with some trading sloops to convey the Shetland mail; but the sum given, it would seem, is not sufficient to induce them to observe regularity in the time of sailing. Sometimes the letters for two or three months arrive at one and the same moment: this actually happened when we were at Lerwick. As a proof that the business of the Post-office is considered merely as a secondary object by the proprietors of these trading sloops, it may be mentioned, that one of them sailed from Aberdeen without carrying the bag at all, the conveyance of which ought, by bargain, to have been her principal errand. Post-office packets ought therefore to be established by a new and more efficient contract, either from Aberdeen or from Leith (which last would perhaps be preferable) direct for Lerwick in Shetland, and to sail every fortnight. It is not improbable that merchants in Leith and Lerwick would soon find it a pretty lucrative contract.

“Commission of the peace—There are no justices of the peace in Shetland, although, as we were told, a commission lies ready for the gentlemen of that country; each having only to take the oaths, which may be done at Kirkwall in Orkney, and to pay a small sum (it is believed about 7s. 6d.) of clerk’s fees. There is not a magistrate of any kind in Shetland except the sheriff-substitute. Were the principal Shetland proprietors to qualify as justices of the peace, the business of the Sheriff-court would be

* Shetlanders who have never been from home have no idea of trees. Lately, a native, who had hitherto spent his days in his own island, having occasion to visit Edinburgh, when the trees were first pointed out to him on the coast of Fife, said they were very pretty; ‘but,’ added he, with great simplicity, ‘what kind of grass is that on the top of them?’—meaning the leaves; for the term grass or girse is, in Shetland, applied to all herbs having green leaves.

considerably lightened, as very few of the Shetland debts exceed 5*l.* sterling, to which amount a decree of the justice of Peace Court is competent. It may be added, that if a few of the resident landlords were invested with the powers of Justices, incipient culprits might sometimes be checked and reformed, who, at present, in many places of these scattered islands, must be hardened in guilt by the prospect of impunity.

“Freehold.—None of the freeholders of Shetland (if we may so call them) having ever qualified, they have never yet exercised their franchise of voting for a member of parliament; which seems to be an unaccountable circumstance.

“State of the common people.—At first view, it seems to a stranger, that the common people are here involved in a state of more complete vassalage than is perhaps known in any other part of the empire. ‘In these distant islands (says Mr. Pennant), the hand of oppression reigns uncontrolled: the poor vassals (in defiance of laws still kept in bondage) are compelled to slave and hazard their lives in the capture, to deliver their fish to their lords, for a trifling sum, who sell them to adventurers from different parts at a high price.’ In confirmation of this remark of Mr. Pennant, it has been stated, that after deducting the expence of salting and drying the fish, the landlords of Shetland at this day export them at a profit (including the bounty from Government) of about 400 per cent. !

“‘They must fish for their masters,’ says the intelligent Mr. Menzies, minister of Lerwick;—‘they must fish for their masters, who either give them a fee entirely inadequate to their labour, and their

dangers, or take their fish at a lower price than others would give. It is true that, in years of scarcity, they must depend on their landlords for the means of subsistence, and are often deep in their debt. But why not, (he adds with energy), why not allow them to make the best of their situation? Why not let them have leases upon reasonable terms, and dispose of their produce to those that will give them the best price? Why not let them fish for themselves? Why should the laird have any claim except for the stipulated rent?’

“Before making any remarks on this apparently deplorable state of dependence of the poor Shetlanders, it is proper to premise, that the evil is not solely to be ascribed to some peculiarly rigorous or tyrannical spirit in the Shetland landlords; but arises, in some measure, out of the nature of things: depending partly on the natural poverty of the country, and partly on a variety of unfavourable circumstances in its civil regulation, of Danish origin.

“Further, it must be considered, that in Shetland, some of the most salutary laws of Britain are unknown, or do not operate, so detached and over-looked are these islands.

“The tenantry look up to the Shetland landlord from a state, generally, of hopeless poverty and abject dependence; for if they are not tenants at will, they seldom hold leases of more than two or three years; and they are often drowned in debt to their lairds.

“It is the landlord’s interest that his tenants should be fed and should multiply; he takes care accordingly, that, even in times of scarcity, none shall perish for want, and he encourages marriage. But

in some other points, the Shetland landlord's interest has been thought to run almost directly counter to that of the tenant; and here his overwhelming influence must secure him success. For example, it has been thought to be against his interest, that his tenants should attain in any degree that envied state of independence which is the grand motive of every description of tenants in the south of Scotland, and which animates the exertions even of a moss-laird, in Stirlingshire. Although, therefore, it is by no means an avowed principle, it has been alleged to be a practical one, with the Shetland land-holders, to keep their tenants as poor and as dependent as possible. 'They must fish for their masters.' Every tenant, or at least every cottar-tenant, is expected to fish during summer: and as a striking proof of the subjection in which the Shetland cottars are held, I may mention as an undoubted fact, that for every lad who goes to the Greenland whale-fishery for the summer, the cottar-family to which he belongs must pay to the landlord one guinea of fine. This is an exaction which the landlords who practise it, may well wish to slur over: but if the fine be not levied avowedly on that ground, we have been credibly informed that a guinea is always added to that year's rent, and that the reason of the addition is perfectly understood by both parties.

"It must ever be kept in view, that the value of Shetland estates depends not so much upon the money-rents paid to the landlord (which in many cases have not been nominally raised for a century past), as upon the fishings which their tenants are obliged to carry on for them, which more than double the land-rents. 'The rents of

this country (says the author of the Statistical Report of Dunrossness) are principally paid out of the sea. The tenants have from their landlords, 3d. for a ling, 1d. for a cod, or for a tusk, &c. (this was in 1792) and these, when salted and dried, will, in the Hamburg market, yield four or five times as much, besides debentures from Government. Add to this, double or triple the prime cost for goods brought back, and sold to the people, viz. linen, tobacco, spirits, hooks, lines, &c. If this statement be correct, (and there is little reason to doubt but it is,) it is evident that the profits of the Shetland landlords upon their fishings and fishers, after deducting a large percentage for expences, must be very great indeed.

"It may be thought that there is no harm in the landlord supplying his tenants with clothes, linens, and such things, and that it is even a favour to them to do so. Frequently it is a favour: but sometimes it is far otherwise. It sometimes proves the gulf in which the poor tenant is overwhelmed in misery. For the landlord gives to his tenant unlimited credit for such articles: the tenant, again, as may naturally be expected, indulges with less scruple the taste of his family for clothing and finery: meanwhile, the account imperceptibly swells; and frequently the day of reckoning, alone, opens his eyes to the state of irretrievable ruin and dependence, in which he has thus blindly involved himself.

"It may be proper to remark, that where the landlords themselves are resident, and become contractors with their tenants, the exhausted cottar or fisher generally obtains mercy: but where the landlords let in lease their fisheries,

as is often done, to tacksmen, who are interested to make all they can of the cottars or under-tenants, pitiful is said to be the state of the poor fisher and his family!

“ We were told of two recent innovations, which, if really put in practice, savour strongly of deceit and oppression.

“ 1. The butter-debt, as it is called, is paid in quantities, called, lis-pounds. Formerly, a lis-pound consisted only of about twelve, or, at most, sixteen pounds Dutch. By artifice it is said now to be raised to about two-and-thirty pounds Dutch; and still the tenants must pay the same number of lis-pounds! And a certain portion of butter, wool, or other articles, it will be observed, is not only generally paid as rent, but every where as teind, and as superior's duty.

“ 2. Teind has always been exigible on the produce of the haaf fishing, viz. ling, cod, and tusk. This haaf fishing (as the word *baaf*, or distant sea, implies) is carried on at the distance of from 25 to 50 miles from land. Besides this fishery, which can only be practised during summer, the Shetland cottar or farmer has always been accustomed to apply himself, during winter, to the shore-fishery, where sillocks (the fry of the coal-fish), and pillocks, (coal-fish a year old), with thornbacks, plaice, &c. are caught. From the coal-fish fry, oil is procured to supply the cottage-lamp in that dreary season; the others are often the principal food of the inhabitants. Where a cottar has become superannuated and unfit for the distant ling-fishery, this shore-fishing is likewise his summer employment, and he then chiefly catches haddocks, and hoes, or piked dog-fish. Will it be believed, that of late years, the lessees

of the teinds have endeavoured to extend their claims to this shore-fishery? a burden which it cannot bear, and from which, we were informed, inveterate and immemorial practice ought most forcibly to keep it free. The pretence, we understand, is, that ling are sometimes caught in the shore-fishery: but although it cannot fail to happen, in these northern seas, that while the grey-headed Shetlander is paddling along the shore in his skiff, to collect a dish of podleys and flounders, his bait will occasionally attract the eye of a young ling or tusk, it is certain that all the ling, cod, or tusk, thus caught in a year would not amount in value even to the sum itself claimed for teind-duty!

“ It is evident that in Shetland matters are thus in a bad train: but it were no easy thing to point out a general and suitable remedy. In most cases the tenants are so poor, that, were the landlord, at once, to withdraw his aid, and leave them to manage as they best could, many of them would probably perish for want. For the landlord has, in most places, not only to provide boats for the fishery, but lines, hooks, &c. and gin or whisky, without a small stock of which, the fishers could scarce venture 30 or 40 miles to the main sea in an open boat. He furnishes the fishers also, as already remarked, with clothing; and he sees to the aliment of their families in their absence. In a bad season, when the crops fail, the fisherman and his family depend on their laird for subsistence; and in this way, also, a debt is often incurred, from which the gains of several successive years of prosperity may not perhaps be able to relieve him. It deserves therefore to be considered, that if the fishers were to be entire-

ly emancipated from their present state, it would be but just that the nation should re-imburse the landlords the sums thus, *bona fide*, expended in alimentering their tenants in years of scarcity.

“The cottars, as formerly seen, are almost tenants at will, or at best have only a biennial or triennial lease. This is a great evil, effectually preventing any attempts at agricultural improvements; but the extreme poverty of the present little farmers of Shetland, would, perhaps, in many cases, prevent them from accepting a nineteen years lease, if put in their option.

“In many places, as above observed, the money-rents of the land have not been raised for a hundred years; this irresistibly proves what high profits the landlords must be making on the resale of the fish, the oil, the butter, &c. received from their tenants at stipulated prices. Were the size of farms enlarged, and leases of nineteen years duration granted, the whole lands of Shetland would doubtless give more than double the present rents. But even in such event, unless manufacturers were here and there, at the same time, established, is it not improbable that many of the present cottars would either starve or be compelled to indent themselves to America!

“Were some fishing villages established in Shetland, and were a few opulent Scots or English com-

panies to open warehouses there, where the natives might dispose of their fish, either green or salted, and where they might procure boats, lines, salt, &c. as they wanted, or could purchase, the advantage to the country would probably soon appear. The landlords would then find it their interest to invite more substantial tenants, and to grant long leases, in order to have their lands improved and their rents increased. While one part of the natives would thus be engaged in raising crops and improving the breed of sheep and cattle; another would be employed, in summer, at the ling and tusk fishery, and in winter at the piltock and shore-fishery; and each would mutually supply the wants of the other.

“It does not readily occur that an increase of the bounty on the fishery would be of advantage to Shetland in general.

“The conversion of the teinds into money would doubtless be of essential advantage, both to the agriculture of the country and to its harmony, and would remove a great bar to the beneficial influence of the example and instructions of the clergy.

“It would also be highly advantageous to convert into money-sterling, the whole of the superior's debts, (scatt, wattle, and other exactions of Danish origin), at present paid in oil, butter, and wool.”

VIEWS, CUSTOMS, and CURIOSITIES in SWITZERLAND.

[From Mr. LEMAISTRE'S TRAVELS.]

SATURDAY, Sept. 4, 1802.—We left Lausanne at seven o'clock; breakfasted at Meudon, where we found a good but extravagant inn; and arrived, about five in the evening, at Payerne, where we took up our quarters at the sign of the Hôtel de Ville. The country through which we traveled in the morning was poor, hilly, and barren; but about five miles from Payerne we came into a very pretty country, and passed through a fine wood of considerable extent.

“Sunday, Sept. 5.—We set out from Payerne at half past five in the morning, and arrived at Fribourg at eight. We traveled through a delightful country extremely well cultivated, and over roads uncommonly good. On entering the canton of Fribourg, we were much entertained with the dresses of the peasants: the women wear large straw hats ornamented with black lace, and their hair is plaited in large tresses round their head: the men are dressed in red cloth waistcoats, and round hats with gold bands. The catholic churches are decorated with pictures over the door of each, and the tombs with colored crucifixes. Fribourg is a small but pretty town: the cathedral is a very fine building. I visited the convent of the Capuchins, which is still in existence, and went through the whole house. There are twenty-four brothers, or members, of this community. The one who received me took great pains to convince me that he was happy, and perfectly satisfied with his situation.

I can only say—‘Credat Judæus Apella; non ego.’ In going away I offered money to my civil conductor; but he would not receive it; and insisted on giving me, as I left the monastery, a nosegay, the produce of the garden belonging to the house.

“We afterwards went to the female convent of Ursulines. Five or six nuns appeared at the grate of the parloir; but, alas! not one was either young or pretty: they were all, however, civil, talkative, and gay. These nuns amuse themselves with making artificial flowers, some of which we of course bought.

“We then drove to the Hermitage, about four miles from the town. This is a spot which affords a curious instance of persevering and useless industry. It is a vast hermitage, consisting of a dormitory, a chapel, a large saloon, a kitchen, and other apartments, cut out of a rock by the incessant labor of two men, who successively made this place their retreat. The first person who settled here was satisfied with forming an apartment for his own use; but his successor consumed his life in bringing it to its present state. Unfortunately the present hermit, who is the third occupier of this singular habitation, was not at home: this circumstance prevented my seeing his own room; but I gained admittance into several chambers of considerable size, particularly the chapel and the hall.

“The situation of this strange residence is romantic and beautiful.
The

The rock of which it is formed overhangs the river Sane; 'which,' as Mr. Coxe observes, 'after having meandered through two chains of mountains covered with wood, waters all the valley below.'

"About two o'clock we returned to Fribourg, and, getting into our corbeille, (the horses of which we had left to rest, while we took this excursion in a carriage of the country), we continued our route towards Berne. The country through which we passed was well wooded, rich, and highly cultivated. The houses, built of wood, are without chimneys—the smoke being allowed to make its way through the doors or windows; and the roofs are of tile. When we came into the canton of Berne, we instantly perceived the change by the dress of the people, by the superior state of agriculture, and by the general appearance of wealth and comfort. The women are clad in black jackets, blue waistcoats, and straw hats; and their hair is dressed in long plaits which fall to the ground. We reached Berne at eight in the evening, and found very comfortable accommodations at the sign of La Couronne.

"Monday, Sept. 6.—We proceeded after breakfast this morning to view the curiosities of the town. The High-street is long, wide, and handsome. The houses are built of stone, and there are trottoirs, or flag stones, for foot passengers, with the addition of colonnades, or piazzas, of an elegant construction, which protect the inhabitants from the heat of the sun in summer and from the fall of rain in winter.

"The German language is spoken almost universally in Berne. Having missed the door of my inn

in this street, it was long before I could find any person sufficiently conversant with the French either to understand or satisfy my inquiries.

"The cathedral is a handsome edifice; and the terrace near it commands a most sublime and magnificent prospect, of which a country singularly rich and romantic—the Aar, a river of much beauty—and the mighty range of Alps, which are seen in all their grandeur—form the objects. We ascended the top of the church; and thence the view was if possible still more picturesque. We also saw the town and environs to great advantage from this elevated spot.

"After enjoying for some time this delightful landscape, we descended, and went from the cathedral to the public library. The collection of books is not large, but made with considerable judgment. The rooms appropriated to this purpose are handsome and lively. There is also here a museum of stuffed birds, fossils, and other curiosities in natural history. The walls of the different apartments belonging to this library are ornamented with the pictures of the former magistrates of Berne, clad in their official dresses.

"We next visited the mint, or Hôtel des Monnoies, which is a small neat building. The manager, an Englishman by birth, had the politeness to show us the interior of this establishment, where several workmen were employed in coining small pieces of base money, composed of equal portions of silver and alloy. The value of each of these pieces is the tenth part of a batz, and a batz is worth two-pence English.

"From the mint we were conducted to the infirmary and the hospital.

hospital. The latter forms a large square, having a garden for its centre; is very airy, and apparently well managed. We did not go into the rooms; but we understood from every body that they were kept in great order. I smiled involuntarily at the patriotic prejudices of my guide, who, on my observing that the hospital seemed uncommonly clean, exclaimed, with a deep sigh, ‘*Ah, monsieur, si vous l’eussiez vu avant la révolution, c’étoit bien une autre chose**.’ The Swiss, one may conclude from this remark, entertain so great an antipathy to their present government, that they consider every thing as deteriorated. According to this opinion, even washing, scouring, and sweeping, cannot be now so well performed as formerly.

“We spent the rest of the morning in wandering over the town, which is uncommonly neat and pretty in every part. We dined at an early hour, and proceeded afterwards on our road to Thun, which is distant about eighteen miles from Berne.

“We arrived at the former of these places at seven in the evening, after a delightful journey. The road was excellent, and the views more than commonly beautiful. A cultivated and well wooded valley, filled with pretty villages, was the country through which we traveled, and the towering Alps finished the landscape.

“Tuesday, Sept. 7.—We left our carriage to await our return at Le Freyhoff, the little inn of Thun, and got into a boat covered with oiled skin and rowed by three men, at a little before nine o’clock this

morning. After rowing for a short distance on the river Aar, we found ourselves on the lake of Thun; one bank of which presents majestic mountains (particularly le Niese and le Stockhorne), and the other, fine woods and rich vineyards. As we moved along on this wide and beautiful piece of water, we remarked le château de Oberhofen, where formerly resided a bailiff of Berne, and near it a gentleman’s seat, belonging to M. de Vatevell. Under the Niese I perceived, in a sweet situation, a white little church, which seemed as if it had been an object placed there on purpose to increase the beauty of the landscape. Further on, on the same side, we observed the castle and church of Spietz, belonging formerly to the barons of Boudenbourg, and at present to the ancient family of D’Erlach of Berne.

“On the other bank, we noticed a curious old wooden house, with the horns of a deer suspended as a sign before it. The next objects which attracted our attention were the house and village of Meerlingen. The former of these is exactly midway between the extremities of the lake. The inhabitants of the village are considered, according to the prejudices of the country, as idiots; but M. Richart (whose traveling book I had with me) says that there is not the least truth in the report.—On a height above, stands a village church in a most romantic position.

“We now approached a kind of bay. On the left were fir trees growing out of the rock; and on the right, fine woods, planted at the foot of the mighty mountains which stand above. After turning round

* ‘Oh, sir, if you had seen it before the revolution, it was then in a very different state.’

the rock, which here projects, we perceived Neuhaus (or the new house), near which persons sometimes land, and take a direct path to Utersee. On the right, close on the lake, a pretty little village, called Leisegal, demanded our attention: and on the other side, a cascade falling from a vast eminence: and above, a church built in the centre of the rock, which is itself covered with trees.

“ We arrived at the further extremity of the lake of Thun, a distance of nine English miles, at half past twelve o’clock. We here seemed to be in a spot secluded from the rest of the world; and it was impossible to view the vast features of nature which surrounded us without feeling a kind of involuntary awe. We proceeded on foot, no carriage being to be had at the water’s side, to Utersee, a little dirty village built of wood.

“ We found, on our arrival at this place, that even in this sequestered part of virtuous Switzerland imposition was not unknown; and so great a price was asked for a low cart, with seats suspended on it, drawn by one horse (the only conveyance of which the country admits), that it was three o’clock before our arrangements were finally made. We at last set out, with a good horse, and a fine lad as driver, who walked by the side. The road was wonderfully romantic, wild, and indeed terrific. At first we passed through a fine plain, surrounded with the vast mountains of the country. We then began to ascend up a narrow road, on the side of a rapid torrent. The hills around were well wooded and well inhabited, for cottages were scattered about in abundance. Cows were grazing on the summit of the mountains, in rich fields, the ver-

dure of which was extremely beautiful.

“ After traveling in this manner, at the edge of precipices, during the space of two hours, we came in sight of the Youngfrau, or Maiden Mountain (called so because the foot of man has never been able to traverse it), covered with snow; and in another hour reached Lauterbrunnen. The village stands in a situation truly romantic. We found here an inn of decent appearance; but having heard that travelers were sometimes received at the parsonage-house, we sent our servant to the minister’s, and requested the favor of accommodations for the night; which, on condition that we would excuse the homely fare which his larder afforded, was readily and politely granted. We were welcomed to this peaceful mansion with much hospitality by its respectable owner, whose name is Zumelini; by his wife, a well-behaved young woman, who spoke French perfectly well; and by her mother, a respectable and sensible old lady. Tea was instantly served; after which our reverend host proposed walking with me round the neighbourhood. The Stoubbach, one of the most celebrated waterfalls of Switzerland, fronts the windows of this house; but though it rolls from a height of nine hundred feet, it is not a very striking sight at present,—the extreme dryness of the season having deprived it of its usual quantity of water. After walking more than an hour, in a rich valley encircled by the sublimest mountains, and washed by the waters which fall from their summit, we approached the Youngfrau; and as I beheld with admiration its lofty white top, my attention was drawn to a fine waterfall, which, descending

descending from that vast mountain, rushes with roaring impetuosity into the plain below. I had just time enough to contemplate this and the adjoining glaciers, when night hid the scene from my view.—An individual attempted some time back to rob the Young-frau of her virgin honors; but his rashness was punished with death, for he was never heard of after the morning when he set out on the expedition.

“I returned home with my respectable conductor, much delighted with the scenes I had witnessed, and not a little obliged by the civilities he had shown me. I should doubtless have likewise received much information from his conversation, had I been able to understand him; but, unfortunately, the German, of which I am totally ignorant, was the only modern language which he could speak. After several fruitless attempts at expressing to each other our opinions, we at last remembered that a medium of communication might perhaps be found by talking Latin. This experiment afforded some relief to the embarrassment under which we had hitherto labored; but the difference of pronunciation still placed a considerable difficulty in the way of our conversation. The good man spoke Latin with considerable fluency (for, in foreign education, academical students are taught to speak as well as write the dead languages), while I expressed myself but imperfectly, never having had occasion, excepting in the schools of Oxford, to use that tongue.

“We supped with this worthy family on water-gruel (which supplied the place of soup), and on trout caught in the neighbouring streams; to which were added

boiled eggs and fried liver. Our drink was the wine of the country; and the repast concluded with a glass of lanelle, a bottle of which was brought out in honor of the English guests. Every thing was given with such good will and cordial hospitality, that it was impossible not to be pleased—though I must confess, that, having traveled all day without eating, I should have considered a more substantial meal as better suited to the keenness of my appetite. Before we left the table, the minister pronounced with a solemn tone a prayer in German, answering, as I suppose, to our grace. We then adjourned to another room, where our landlord entertained us with a domestic concert. The good minister played the violin, and his wife the harpsichord. They were accompanied by the voices of their female servants, two pretty young girls, dressed in the costume of the country, who, being unable to read the notes, kept time by the motion of their fingers. The music, also the composition of our host, was wild and simple: and it was with great truth I assured the ladies of the family, who offered many apologies for the poverty of this entertainment, that I preferred it to the finest efforts of studied skill.—After listening some time to this music, we retired to a very comfortable bedchamber, and slept so soundly that we never heard a violent storm which raged during the night.

“This day was passed in a most agreeable manner. After enjoying the novelty and grandeur of the sublime scenery which we had visited in the morning, we experienced an equal pleasure from the society of the good people whose guests we became in the evening: their plain

plain but hearty welcome, their homely but plentiful board, and their good-humoured attempts to please, afforded an incident so new and so interesting that I set it down among the most agreeable occurrences of my tour.

“ Wednesday, Sept. 8.—I rose at half past five o’clock, and walked to the foot of the Stoubbach, which falls from a vast height directly opposite the parsonage of Lauterbrunnen. The rain which fell during the night had increased its waters, but it was still far from being in high beauty.

“ On returning, I found the minister and his family ready to receive us. After breakfasting with these excellent people, and expressing our gratitude for the hospitable reception which they had afforded us, we mounted again our little cart, and continued our route towards Grindenwald. It rained very hard this morning; and as our conveyance was uncovered, we were obliged to depend on our great coats and umbrellas for shelter against the wet. We traversed again great part of the road which we had passed the preceding day. At length we crossed a wild rustic bridge, and, taking the other bank of the river, began to ascend the hills which lead to Grindenwald. The country continued to display the same features; but the road was steeper, and the mountains became more wild, lofty, and majestic. After traveling for some time, we came in sight of the glaciers, the white color of which was beautifully contrasted with the deep green of the fir trees which surround them on all sides.

“ We arrived at Grindenwald about eleven o’clock. The inn is small, and in every respect but little superior to the cottage of a peasant. After we had eaten of the refreshments which we brought with us (for nothing was to be had in this miserable *auberge*), we walked to see the glaciers; but the rain continued to fall with such violence, that we were prevented either from ascending or staying long near these mountains of ice. Though the road which leads to Grindenwald is wonderfully striking, and truly magnificent, I am far from thinking that the valley itself deserves the reputation which it almost universally possesses. In my opinion, it is by no means to be compared with that of Chamouny, which I have already described: nor are the glaciers of Grindenwald near so large or so beautiful as those of Chamouny.

“ At three o’clock we recommenced our journey, in spite of the torrents of rain, which were incessant; and, passing over the same ground, arrived at Utersee about seven in the evening. We thus completed this little tour to the mountains in perfect safety, after traveling for two days in an unsteady cart on the brink of precipices. Mrs. L. was, as you may imagine, much alarmed; but the lad who drove us was extremely careful; and, whenever he saw fear depicted in her face, he cried out, in a tone of voice which inspired confidence, ‘ *N’avez pas peur, madame**.’ This broken sentence of French was all he could speak in that language; but he seemed very proud of being able even to

* He should have said ‘ *N’ayez pas peur* ’—‘ Be not afraid ’—‘ there is no cause for fear.’

say so much, and was extremely anxious to remove every cause for alarm. We were much pleased with his naïveté, his skill, and his good-humor.

“At Utersee we found a comfortable little inn; and, after changing our wet clothes, sat down to a clean, simple, plentiful supper. Our bed, though not decked out with the ornaments of a Parisian hotel, was excellent: but a violent storm of thunder and lightning, which shook the very foundation of this wood-built house, rendered sleep impossible. The noise of this storm continued during the whole of the night.

“Thursday, Sept. 9.—I intended to have risen at five o’clock this morning, in order to pay a visit to the lake of Brientz, which is not far distant, previously to the intended embarkation on our return to Thun. The excessive rain, which continued, made me give up, though with great reluctance, the execution of this project: and I almost feared, from the appearance of the clouds, that we should be detained all day at Utersee. At nine the weather unexpectedly cleared up, and we set out for the water side in the cart which had taken us to Grindenwald. The honest lad who drove us, though dismissed the preceding night with the payment of his carriage and a fee to himself, came unsolicited in the morning with his cart, and insisted on conveying us to (what he conceived the extremity of the world) the mouth of the lake which separates the wild country of which he is an inhabitant from the rest of Switzerland. On arriving at the place where it is usual to embark, we found that the wind, which raged with violence during the night, had abated; and, hiring

a boat similar to that in which we had made the passage before, we ventured to set out. We were rowed by two men, and by a fine young woman, who was not the least active of the three. When we had traversed about half the lake, the weather again changed—the rain, thunder, and lightning returned; and our conductors, apprehending a storm (for storms are both frequent and dangerous on this water), pushed to the nearest shore with great energy and apparent alarm. We reached the land in safety; and after we had waited about half an hour under the shelter of a fisherman’s hut, the storm abated. We ventured to embark a second time; and arrived at Thun at two o’clock. We here took some slight refreshment, and, getting into our corbeille (which we had left at this place), proceeded on our journey in spite of the rain and thunder, which continued to prevail, and found ourselves at Berne before seven in the evening. We were agreeably surprised at finding at the inn some English friends; with whom, after dinner (the weather having again become favorable), we strolled about the town, and admired the beautiful view which presents itself from the platform or terrace near the cathedral.

“Friday, Sept. 10.—We set out this morning at half past eight o’clock, and arrived about twelve at a little village, where our horses were allowed to bait. The necessity of allowing some hours daily for this purpose is one of the most disagreeable circumstances attending a tour in Switzerland. The drivers, or *voituriers*, have also much of the German character; and they always contrive to reach the place where they purpose making

ing a halt exactly at noon, at which precise time of day they are certain of finding a hot dinner ready dressed at the inn: and it is impossible to persuade them to proceed, till they have made their meal in plenty, swallowed their quota of wine, and smoked their usual quantity of tobacco. When I first set out on this expedition I endeavoured to make some changes in this daily routine; but I soon discovered how vain were all remonstrances; and in future submitted (I cannot say very willingly) to an arrangement by which my plans were dreadfully retarded.

“The country through which we passed this morning was rich, and well cultivated; but it appeared flat and tame to our eyes, after the wild and majestic scenery which presented itself on the road to Grindenwald.

“We failed not to stop at Hindelbranch, to see, in the church of that village, the celebrated tomb of madame Langhams, executed by Nahl. The history of the tomb is this:—The artist being employed to erect a monument to the memory of a distinguished magistrate of Berne, who was buried in the parish, took up his abode at the house of the clergyman, where he experienced the utmost kindness and hospitality. During his residence there, the young, beautiful, and virtuous wife of this gentleman died in child-bed. Prompted by the recollection of the favors which he had received in the family, and moved by the sorrow to which it became the victim in consequence of this sudden and melancholy event, M. Nahl determined to record his own gratitude and the merit of his benefactress in a tomb worthy of her whom he deplored. He left unfinished the splendid task

which had brought him hither, and devoted his whole time to the monument in honor of madame Langhams, which was accordingly completed.—The design is admirable: the stones of the grave appear as broken, and the figure of this lady, executed with great art, is seen bursting with her child, at the day of judgement, from the tomb, which still half detains her. Nothing can be finer than the thought; but the execution, though very fine, did not quite come up to the expectation which I had formed in consequence of the great renown which this monument has obtained.

“After we had consumed the usual time at our baiting-place, well called by the coachman *la dinée*, or dining time, we continued our route, and reached Langenthal at six—a pretty, clean village—where we found a neat and comfortable inn at the sign of the Golden Lion.

“The country through which we traveled this evening was well wooded and highly cultivated, but flat and uninteresting. The peasants’ houses presented every appearance of plenty and real comfort. Equality seems actually to exist in this country: no lordly ostentatious mansion interrupts the tranquil scene, and no half-ruined cottage marks the residence of wretchedness. Generally speaking, the canton of Berne reminds me of England—with this exception only, that in the former there are few, if any, gentlemen’s houses. Between Berne and Langenthal (a distance of thirty miles), I saw but one mansion; and that belonged to the ancient family of D’Erlach, long at the head of the magistracy of Berne.

“Saturday, Sept. 11.—We set out, in bad weather, this morning,
for

for Lucerne; into the canton of which name we soon afterwards entered. The poverty and dirt of the inhabitants marked the limits, and would have proved our arrival in a catholic country, without the crosses, churches, and burying-grounds covered with colored crucifixes, which we met with at every mile.

“After a tiresome stage, we reached at twelve the wretched, little, priest-ridden town of Sursee; in which, amidst filth, wretchedness, and gloomy solitude, a splendid church raises its insulting head.

“After in vain attempting to breakfast, for every thing which was brought us at the inn was too disgustingly bad to be eaten, and waiting with as much patience as we could command while our coachman devoured his usual dinner, we continued our route, notwithstanding the rain, which fell in torrents, and arrived at Lucerne about seven in the evening. On our road, soon after leaving Sursee, we passed by the Lac de Sempach, a small lake, which appeared, as far as I could judge from viewing it in such unfavorable weather, to possess many beauties. It is also celebrated for a great battle fought near its banks.

“At Lucerne we had the pleasure of meeting two English gentlemen whom we had known at Paris, and from them first learned the insurrection which had just taken place in the smaller cantons, and which was rapidly spreading itself over the rest of Switzerland. The inn was crowded,—the town being filled with military; and the only lodgings we could procure were wretchedly bad.

“Sunday, Sept. 12. — After breakfast we proceeded to see the curiosities of the place. We at-

tended high mass at the cathedral of Lucerne, and were much entertained, both with the harmony of the music and the tawdry pomp of the ceremony. In returning, we visited the three covered bridges, each of which is ornamented with paintings—particularly that over the Reuss. On the latter is represented ‘*La Danse de Mort.*’ This is a strange conceit of the painter, who, mingling the most farcical with the most serious ideas, has drawn a caricature of persons of all descriptions, of all ages, and of all professions, overtaken by the unexpected, un pitying, and indiscriminating hand of Death. The ambitious statesman, the powdered beau, the lawyer and the dancing master, the prude and the flirt, the grey-headed sage and the beardless boy, the venerable matron and the lively coquette, the half-starved miser and the pampered prodigal, the soldier and the politician, the author and the mechanic—each of these characters has his place in this picture, arrested by Death, armed with his scythe.

“The church of the Jesuits was the next object of our attention. It is rich, and of good architecture. Only two brothers of the order now remain.

“From the Jesuits we proceeded to general Pfyffer’s, where we asked permission to see his celebrated models. This venerable gentleman, who for many years took a pleasure in himself explaining his ingenious contrivance, is now of too-advanced an age to exercise in person this species of hospitality; but a servant deputed by him gave us a very satisfactory account. The whole of the little cantons, and the Alps which surround them, are accurately described in this design;

every part of which is so clearly marked, that a stranger, who had with proper attention studied it, might certainly find his way, without a guide, even in the most intricate paths.

“ We afterwards took a walk by the water side, and were much struck with the view of the country, and the position of the town, which stands at the mouth of the lake of the Four Cantons, and is surrounded with the most sublime and lofty mountains of the European continent.

“ It rained so violently in the evening, that we were obliged to pass the remainder of the day at our inn.

“ Monday, Sept. 13.—The weather, very fortunately for me, became more favorable at an early hour this morning, and I proceeded in my intended excursion on *Le Lac des Quatre Cantons*. At a little before seven o'clock I embarked in an open boat at Lucerne, accompanied by a guide whom I had engaged for the purpose. After a safe and very pleasant voyage on this truly majestic lake, I arrived at Brunnen at half past eleven. A little before we reached the shore we passed by the village and nation of Gersaw, the smallest republic in the world, consisting of not more than one thousand individuals. We saw at a distance the plain where ‘*les trois conjurés*’ (as the fathers of Swiss independence were called) first planned the emancipation of their country; and, opposite to that plain, one of the temples erected in honor of William Tell. I forgot to mention, that, as we rowed by the neck of land which it is necessary to approach in visiting the territories of the little cantons, we perceived on the heights a guard of insurgent peasants,

sheltered by a few boards put together in a very rough manner.

“ On landing at Brunnen, a peasant, with a green flower and red-and-white cockade in his hat, asked for the passport of my guide and myself; and, having examined this document and our features, conducted us to a little inn, where a person in an officer's uniform appeared. The latter received the passport, and soon after countersigned and returned it.

“ I then proceeded on foot to Schwitz, through the well-known valley of that name, which is beautifully picturesque. As we walked along we saw a regiment of peasants drawn out for exercise, properly armed, and accompanied by drums and fifes, but not dressed in uniform,—being only distinguished by green boughs, which they wore in their hats. This was one of those corps which the smaller cantons, animated by that courage which has from time immemorial distinguished them, have lately raised, in order to restore their ancient and much-loved constitution. In seeing these brave defenders of civil liberty marching over that plain which had witnessed the original establishment of Swiss independence, I could not help fancying that they were animated by the spirit of the first founders of the Helvetic league. The same courage, tempered by decency and order, was seen in these modern patriots, as formerly glowed in the breasts of their heroic ancestors: and with whatever success their exertions may be attended, they at least deserve a fate no less happy than that of their forefathers.

“ At Schwitz, which is a small neat town in a most romantic situation, I visited the church, a singularly large building for such a place.

place. Here are suspended the banners taken by the Swiss in their different combats, which add another spur, if any were wanting, to the zeal of the present warriors.

“While I took a slight dinner at the inn called *Le Cheval Blanc*, I learned that it was necessary to have my passport examined by the *landermann*, or principal magistrate; and finding that the celebrated *Aloys Reding* held this office, I greedily seized an opportunity, thus afforded me, of seeing that extraordinary man, who, at the first arrival of the French troops in these peaceful scenes, checked with a small body of brave men the whole force of their army, who since was at the head of the Helvetic government, and who is supposed to be the very soul of the present insurrection. I accordingly repaired to his dwelling, which, though far from large, is somewhat superior to the houses around it.—*Aloys Reding* (formerly an officer in the Swiss regiment of guards employed by France) is a tall, fair, genteel man, about forty years old, of military appearance and polished manners. He received me with much urbanity; and, hearing I was English, spoke of our country in terms of great esteem. I told him I visited *Schwitz* with no common feelings—a spot interesting to every British traveler for the exertions made there in former times, and not less so for those which I now witnessed, in the cause of liberty. ‘Alas!’ interrupted Mr. Reding with a sigh, ‘if this country be interesting at all, it is so for its unmerited misfortunes!’—He then countersigned my passport, and in pressing terms offered any civilities which he could grant or I could request. I should have had much

pleasure in continuing the conversation, but, recollecting how valuable must be every moment of his time in the present conjuncture, I contented myself with wishing him and Switzerland every possible happiness, and took my leave.

“I then proceeded with my guide, still on foot, through a charming country—rich, yet romantic—and along natural walks (which were so beautiful as to appear as if they had been made for ornament and convenience in pleasure-grounds), to *Art*, a pretty little sequestered village at the mouth of the lake of *Zug*. Before we arrived at this village, we walked for some distance on the bank of the small lake of *Lovertz*, which is distinguished by its tranquil scenery, and by the picturesque islands planted in its waters.

“At *Art* I hired à boat, and, embarking on the lake of *Zug*, rowed for about an hour, to *Immici*, where I landed; and, after a quarter of an hour’s walk, reached the chapel of *William Tell*, erected to celebrate the death of the bailiff killed by the former near this spot. There is nothing particular in the interior of the chapel, but on the outside are three pictures, the subjects of which are, *William Tell* shooting his arrow over the head of his son, the same jumping into the lake, and the manner in which he killed the tyrant bailiff. The chapel commands a magnificent view of the lake of the *Four Cantons* and the surrounding mountains.

“After paying my homage in this temple of freedom, I descended to the village of *Immici*, and, embarking again on the lake of *Zug*, continued my route towards the town of that name. This lake is very pretty, and richly wooded;

and the mountain Rig rises majestically from its banks.

"As the wind was high, and night approached, I found myself cold in my uncovered boat, and determined to perform the remainder of the journey on foot. I accordingly made to shore when about two or three miles from Zug, and walked along the bank of the lake, in a beautiful path bordered with lofty trees, till I reached the town, where I arrived about half past six in the evening. Here I found Mrs. L. already arrived; who had proceeded in our *corbeille* from Lucerne to this place by the straight road, not having ventured to accompany me in this interesting but fatiguing tour.—I was highly satisfied with my excursion, having in one day visited several of the most striking scenes of the little cantons, and seen, among other objects of great curiosity, the justly-celebrated Aloys Reding.

"Zug is a small neat town, and is only distinguished by being the capital of the canton, and by being surrounded by walls,—a protection which no other place in this neighbourhood possesses.

"Tuesday, Sept. 14.—After a violent dispute with our landlord, who, even in this retired spot, had learnt the arts of imposition, we proceeded on our journey. On leaving Zug, we drove for some time along a cross-road, and were soon in sight of the river Reuss; on the bank of which we traveled till we came to Brengarten, where we stopped to bait our horses.

"Brengarten is a small and not very handsome town, filled with churches and convents. We found the place in a state of great gaiety and mirth, as the inhabitants were celebrating one of their rustic *fêtes*. Several houses were thrown open,

where the peasants were dancing waltzes with great spirit. The men wear large round hats and long coats: the women, short petticoats, and straw hats ornamented with colored ribands. Their hair is dressed in a long narrow plait, which falls almost to their feet.

"About three o'clock we left this town, and continued our journey, passing through a rich and fertile country. We met on the road a corps of armed insurgents, who had flowers and a cockade of black and red riband in their hats. From them we experienced no interruption; but as we approached a little town in possession of the peasants, a sentinel appeared before the gate, and inquired who we were: we answered 'English,' and were instantly allowed to pass.

"We reached Baden early in the evening, and on our arrival found the town in the greatest confusion: it was filled with armed men: troops entered the place every moment: military preparations were making, drums beating, &c. Mrs. L. was alarmed at these warlike symptoms, and wished to leave the town; but on sending my servant to an old, respectable, soldierlike gentleman, who seemed to command, we received such assurances of safety and protection as determined us to follow our first intention, of passing the night here; and accordingly we took up our quarters at Les Balances, a good and comfortable inn.

"While our supper was preparing we took a pleasant walk on the bank of the river Limmat, which flows at the foot of this town. The road to the Baths of Baden is extremely pretty, but the village where they stand is dull and dirty. We observed, as we walked along, the little army of insurgents which

we had met in the morning winding round a hill, on the other side of the river, on its way to Zurich.—

A-propos : we have been prevented from visiting that city and its celebrated lake by the state of siege in which the former is placed. No person, we are told, is at present allowed to enter the walls. This is an unfortunate circumstance, and will render our tour imperfect ; but, on the other hand, we have the advantage of seeing the country at this interesting moment, and of witnessing the brave, dignified, and orderly exertions of the Swiss, in the holy cause of liberty and national independence. I greatly fear that they will be the victims of their courage : the present struggle will form a pretext to France to interfere ; and the consequence will be the loss of what little freedom they now retain. Whether their efforts be or be not politically wise, time only can decide ; but every friend of humanity must commend the principle from which they arise ; and the Swiss may say, in the language of Addison,

‘Tis not in mortals to command success ;
But we’ll do more, Sempronius,—
We’ll deserve it.’

“ Wednesday, Sept. 15.—Notwithstanding the military preparations of the preceding evening, the night passed tranquilly away.

“ We set out again at half past eight o’clock this morning ; and, after traveling for about two hours, crossed the Rhine, over a new bridge,—the old one having been burned by the French in their first invasion. This celebrated river has not (at least at this spot) any thing very particular to distinguish it : it is not so wide as the Thames : nor did we find the country through which we traveled this morning

very picturesque : it is generally laid out in corn. We dined at a small inn (a kind of farmhouse) about half way between Baden and Schaffhausen.

“ At half past three o’clock we set out again, and in about an hour’s time came in sight of the fall of the Rhine, which we saw to great advantage from a field which nearly fronts this beautiful object. After contemplating for some time this far-famed waterfall, we proceeded to Schaffhausen, where we arrived early in the evening.

“ Schaffhausen is an old ugly town, and possesses nothing worthy of notice but its romantic situation ; yet few places are better known, in consequence of its vicinity to the celebrated cataract. The latter fully answered my expectations : but as I intend to visit it with particular attention to-morrow morning, I do not at present enter into a minute account.

“ Thursday, Sept. 16.—We rose at six o’clock, and after breakfast continued our journey.

“ We were conveyed in the carriage of our *voiturier* to a valley adjoining the Fall of the Rhine. We then descended, and proceeded on foot (accompanied by a *laquais de place*, whom I had hired as a *ciceroni*, and brought with me from Schaffhausen) to examine this wonderful fall in several different directions, every one of which presents distinct beauties.—After viewing it in front and on one side, I crossed in a boat to the village of Lauffen, and, mounting to a kind of summer-house placed on an eminence, saw it to great advantage from above. The sun shone directly upon the water, and produced a finely-colored rainbow, which added not a little to the beauty of the scene.

“The castle of Lauffen, also a romantic object, stands near the summer-house where I was placed.

“After I had sufficiently enjoyed this point of view, I descended to a little platform erected for the purpose, where I was so near the fall as to be able to touch the water, and was wetted by its spray. The prospect here was so magnificently striking, that I could scarcely persuade myself to go away, and to join Mrs. L., who waited for me (not without some uneasiness) on the other side of the river. In crossing again the water (which runs with vast rapidity), I ventured to row very near the fall, and was more and more astonished by the grandeur of the scene. On reaching the land I got into the *corbeille*, and, dismissing my guide, left unwillingly this charming landscape.

“We continued for some time to travel on the bank of the Rhine, and breakfasted at a little dirty village belonging to the emperor. After one of those long pauses with which my *voiturier* often puts my patience to the trial, we recommenced our journey, and arrived two hours afterwards at a very pretty hamlet, at the foot of which flows the Rhine in all its majesty. In this place our coachman insisted on our passing the night, alleging that the inn, though apparently bad, was the best within a distance of several miles. Here we found little wretched beds, without curtains, placed in cavities of the wall, and as few comforts as it is possible to meet with in any part of Europe. The people were, however, civil and hospitable, and gave us the best articles which their cellar and larder produced—though that best was bad indeed.

“About five miles before we

reached this place, a spot was pointed out to us where we were told that a small army of Frenchmen had during the last war driven back twenty thousand Austrians. We had not an opportunity of investigating the truth of the report.

“Friday, Sept. 17.—In going away this morning from our inn, we were much struck with the honesty of our landlady, who only charged five shillings for our dinner, tea, lodging, and breakfast.

“We set out early, and traveled through a pretty and well-wooded country, in a fine wide road, generally near the Rhine, which river we crossed three or four times. We baited at a town in the Frickthal,—a country which formerly belonged to the emperor, but which, having been conquered by France, has been ceded within the last week to the Helvetic republic, in exchange for the Valais. We afterwards continued our route along the other side of the Rhine, till we came to Basle. As we began to approach that town, we were much pleased with the neatness of the houses and the arrangement of the grounds, which all bore the appearance of wealth and industry.

“After crossing the vast bridge which separates one part of Basle from the other, we drove to Les Trois Rois,—an excellent inn, the windows of which command the Rhine. We obtained here a clean, large, and comfortable apartment, which enjoyed the full prospect of the river; and though the price was exorbitant, we felt no inclination to complain.

“There is also in this house a room of great extent, with several windows and a balcony opening on the Rhine, in which more than a hundred persons can sit down to dinner.

dinner. It is appropriated to the use of the *table d'hôte*, or ordinary, which is here said to be elegantly served. I could not judge of its merits, as we preferred dining in our own chamber.—The ladies of the continent often appear at public tables in Switzerland, and I have known some few English ladies follow their example; but the generality of our countrywomen avoid a society which necessarily must be mixed and uncertain. For single men, I am told these tables afford an agreeable resource.

“Saturday, Sept. 18.—After breakfast this morning, we set out to see the town and its curiosities. We first visited M. de Michel's collection of pictures and prints. The former are well chosen, many of them being *chefs-d'œuvres*; the latter are justly celebrated. We bought here several prints of the Swiss costumes, or national dresses; a likeness of Bonaparte, and one of Aloys Reding. M. de Michel and his partners received us with great politeness and attention.

“We next saw the famous and original picture of ‘La Danse de Mort.’ It has still marks of great merit; but being neglected, exposed to the air, and situated in a kind of rope-yard, is rapidly falling into decay.

“We then went to the cathedral, and saw there the tomb of Erasmus, which consists of a simple stone, on which an inscription in honor of his memory is engraved. We ascended to the top of the church, and had from this eminence a fine view of the surrounding country. The church is gloomy, and possesses no particular beauty. The terrace adjoining, which forms the public walk, commands a pretty, but not an extensive prospect. We saw in the cathedral the

room where the famous council of Basle was holden, and that in which the exercises of the university are performed.

“We next repaired to the public library, and its contents were shown us with much politeness by one of the professors. Some excellent pictures by Holbein are here preserved, as well as some of his original designs, the subjects of which are the costumes or dresses of his day. By these it appears that the ladies of the present age are not more liberal in the display of their charms than were their sage predecessors.—The professor likewise showed us some of the books first printed. We were much surprised at finding the types equal to the best of the present day. We were gratified with the sight of the *proces-verbal* of the council of Basle, taken on paper. This curious document proves to demonstration that the invention of paper took place some years sooner than is generally imagined.—We likewise saw several letters in the hand-writing of Erasmus, as also his will. There was likewise a curious copy of his work on ‘Folly,’ with sketches in the margin by Holbein.—The librarian had the kindness to show us, in addition to these, a collection of medals, seals, &c. We then walked through the library, which is large, and apparently well chosen.

“We returned to dinner at four o'clock, and, fatigued with the exertions of the morning, spent the rest of the day at our inn.

“Sunday, Sept. 19.—We proceeded on our journey, taking the road by the valley of Delmont and the aperture called Pierre Purtuis.

“We soon found ourselves in a romantic and picturesque country

on the bank of the river Birsch, bounded by lofty mountains. As we advanced, the plain became narrower and narrower, and the hills approached each other. We then entered the fertile valley of Lauffen, which is encompassed with rocks covered with oak and other trees; and soon after arrived at the town of that name, formerly belonging to the bishop of Basle, and now to the French republic. Here we stopped, as usual, to rest our horses, and had the pleasure of meeting some English acquaintance, who were going to Basle, and were, like ourselves, under the command of a *voiturier*. After a delay of three hours we were allowed to proceed; and passed through a very striking country, till we reached the beautiful, rich, and justly-celebrated valley of Delmont. We traveled during the whole day along a narrow but good road, bounded by rocks which were covered to the very summit with fir trees.

“The valley of Delmont is picturesque beyond description, and would have formed a subject worthy the pencil of Claude Lorraine. The town of the same name (which stands a little out of the high road) is uncommonly neat and pretty. There is a general appearance of comfort and independence. I never saw a small place so completely possessed of all which can be looked for in a tranquil spot of this sort. The church is handsome, and the *ci-devant* episcopal palace (now converted into a workshop) is a large building, which must have been in other times an object worthy of notice. We found a good supper and a clean bed at the inn of La Tour Rouge, the back windows of which command a magnificent view of

the whole valley, which we saw to great advantage, tinged with the rays of the retiring sun.

“Monday, Sept. 20.—Honesty! where art thou to be found?—Even at the little inn of the little town of Delmont, in the most retired part of a country celebrated for its simplicity and good faith, imposition is not unknown. We were waked this morning by a violent noise, and found, on inquiry, that it arose from the tongue of the landlady, who was vociferating her abuse against our courier. It seemed, that, relying on the integrity which he supposed to be prevalent in this quiet little place, he had not made a previous bargain for our accommodations; and that, having resisted the ridiculously-exorbitant demands which the good woman made in the morning, he was now exposed to all the most offensive terms of scurrility which the French language affords; for with such she now vented her indignation, at the expense of the poor fellow.

“As soon as this important business was settled, we proceeded on our journey; and, after passing through two or three villages, came into that romantic country so well described by Mr. Coxe and other travelers. We drove for several hours on the edge of a precipice. The rocks, majestic in height, and ornamented with trees, seemed in many parts almost to join. We found, however, ample room for the passage of our carriage: and, notwithstanding the alarming accounts of this journey given by several writers, I do not imagine that there is the smallest danger; and even Mrs. L., who is easily terrified, felt no alarm after the first five minutes had accustomed her to so unusual a road. The points of view

view were grand and sublime; and I think this expedition, if we except the glaciers, equal to that of Lauterbrunnen or of Grindenwald. Peasants were employed on every side in repairing the road, which is now becoming extremely good. The inscription mentioned by Mr. Coxe still remains, in honor of the patriotic founder of this passage; who certainly might well say of it, that it was a work worthy of the ancient Romans.

"We reached about noon Tavannes, or Dachfeld (for, from the strange mixture of languages which prevails here, every place has both a French and a German name); and, after a second breakfast, at a little inn which has assumed, in honor of the French government, now the sovereign of the country, the sign of the Civic Crown, we set out again at three o'clock, and, having mounted a hill nearly opposite to the village where we had stopped, came to the celebrated Pierre Pertuis.

"The accounts generally given of this opening are so extravagant, that I could scarcely believe that what I now saw was the place described. Pierre Pertuis is simply a passage of eight or ten yards through a rock which stands in the middle of the road. The aperture may have been made in some convulsion of Nature, but Art could easily have effected the same thing.

"At the foot of this rock is the source of the river Birs, or Birsch: a few paces from it the water is sufficiently strong to turn two wind-mills.

"We soon returned into the beautiful valley of St. Imier; then ascended again; and shortly after began once more gently to descend, through a road very like

that which we had passed in the morning; till, having approached the mountain of Jura, we beheld the rich valley near Bienne, the charming prospect of which opened suddenly on us, with the Alps at a distance, and the lake of Bienne and the Isle de St. Pierre in front. We drove to La Couronne at Bienne, which is generally esteemed one of the best inns of Switzerland; but the house was so crowded with travelers that we could only obtain a very indifferent apartment.

"Tuesday, Sept. 21.—We received, early this morning, an invitation from our landlord (which, considering the small dimensions of our lodging, we were very willing to accept) to breakfast in the salon. We found 'mine host' in a neat parlour ornamented with English prints. He is a civil, officious, talkative fellow. He made a thousand bows, and as many apologies for the badness of our accommodations; called me 'milord' at every word; cried out 'Vivent les Anglois' three or four times; and at last drew out a large book, or record, in which most of our countrymen traveling this way had gratified the vanity of the poor man by the most fulsome accounts of the hospitality, civility, and comforts, which they had experienced at his house. I was requested to add my name to the long list of satisfied guests: not having had any cause to speak well of his inn, but unwilling to refuse his request, I contented myself with writing, that 'though, having arrived at a moment when the house was full, I could not personally judge of its merits, I had no doubt that the praises lavished on it by my countrymen were well deserved.' This negative

tive commendation fully gratified my chattering landlord, who, repeating again and again his *révérences*, his *milords*, and his *vivent les Anglois*, at last disappeared, and left us to eat our breakfast in peace.

“ We afterwards strolled about the streets of Bienne ; saw the great fountain, which supplies the whole town with water ; and called at Mr. Hartman’s (the painter), where we were shown some very pretty views of Swiss scenery.

“ We then crossed the beautiful walk which leads from the town to the lake of Bienne, and, embarking in a boat, proceeded towards the Isle de St. Pierre. The weather was delightful, the water was smooth, and the sun shone in all its brilliance. The town of Nidau on one side, and several picturesque villages on the other, with Bienne behind and the island in front, presented a delightful prospect. After rowing for about an hour and a half, and spending that time most agreeably in contemplating the scene around us, we landed at the Isle de St. Pierre ; and, having visited the room where Jean Jacques Rousseau passed three months, and seen the trap-door by which he used to descend whenever any one came to the house, we walked round the island, which is well shaded with lofty oaks, is rich in vineyards and other cultivation, and commands several charming points of view. There is on one side of it a large summer-house, where the neighbouring peasants assemble and dance on Sundays. The Isle de St. Pierre still belongs to the hospital of Berne, and the canton of that name possesses the jurisdiction. Near St. Pierre is the little island which Rousseau peopled with rabbits.

“ We re-embarked about one o’clock, and, after an hour’s passage, landed at Cerlier, a small village at the other extremity of the lake. We got directly into our corbeille, which we found waiting for us (for I had sent it forward early in the morning, by a road which runs at the side of the water), and proceeded on our tour.

“ We had scarcely lost sight of the lake of Bienne before we found ourselves on the bank of that of Neufchatel. We drove along a road exactly similar to the one, which leads from Vevay to Lausanne, and arrived at Neufchatel at half past four o’clock.

“ Neufchatel is a remarkably clean well-built town. The houses are of stone ; and the streets are regular, well paved, and lighted. There are some very handsome houses, particularly the mansion of Mons. Portalis, the celebrated banker.

“ Neufchatel, under Prussian protection, has happily escaped all the dangers of revolution ; and the fact is proved by the general appearance of comfort, wealth, and independence. No town in Switzerland bears such evident marks of prosperity.

“ I visited the town-hall. It is a modern edifice, divided into several rooms appropriated to various public functions. In one of these are the pictures of the late and present king of Prussia ; and in another, the portrait of the great Frederic, and that of M. David de Pury, the person who left the money with which this building was constructed.

“ We are lodged at Les Balances, an inn the windows of which command the lake and the surrounding country. This prospect

spect is rendered particularly interesting by the magnificent range of Alps, which, when the day is clear, are here seen in all their grandeur.

“ Wednesday, Sept. 22.—We rose early, and continued our journey on the banks of the lake of Neufchatel, or Yverdon, as it is sometimes called, from the town of that name. The lake, though less extensive than that of Geneva, bears a strong resemblance to it; but it does not boast such elegant houses, nor such ornamental grounds, on its banks. The vineyards, however, which line its borders, are luxuriant.

“ We baited our horses at the small town of St. Aubane, and, after the usual delay, proceeded towards Yverdon; in sight of which we soon found ourselves.

“ Yverdon stands very beautifully, at the extremity of the lake, and is approached by a long and regular avenue of trees. After taking a considerable circuit, we drove through this avenue, and, turning to the right, found ourselves at La Maison Rouge, a new and comfortable inn, where we procured excellent accommodations.

“ As we approached the town, we saw an assemblage of peasants who had been put in requisition by the Helvetic government and were now by force dragged into its service. I was told that they obeyed this mandate most unwillingly, and that desertions took place every hour.

“ Thursday, Sept. 23.—On rising this morning, I learned, that, of the two hundred recruits whom I saw collected the preceding night, only fifteen remained—the rest having escaped during the night. The drum beat the *réveille*

again and again. It was all in vain: not a man could be found beyond the number I have mentioned. And the inhabitants of Yverdon seemed to rejoice at a circumstance calculated to bring to nothing the already falling power of the government; the members of which, driven from Zurich, are now at Lausanne.

“ We proceeded early on our journey, and, passing the very rich and picturesque valley of Orbe, continued our route towards Geneva,—taking a cross but excellent road. As we traveled along, we met on every side the deserting peasants returning with their arms to their respective villages. I conversed with several of them, and found they did not conceal their hatred of the cause in which it was attempted thus against their will to make them fight.

“ We rested our usual number of hours at a small town called Cossonay, where we made a very bad breakfast, in a miserable inn.

“ Continuing our route after this delay, we soon came in sight of the lake of Geneva, and saw on our left the delightful valley and distant spires of Lausanne. We avoided entering the latter town, on account of its present political state, and, sending our courier for the English carriage which we had left there, took the nearest road to Geneva, and went straight to Rolle, where we arrived about six in the evening.

“ Our coachman drove us to La Couronne, where we found a landlord who spoke English uncommonly well. From this address we flattered ourselves that we should be well received; but in this hope we were cruelly disappointed. It seemed that a British earl, whose courier was waiting at the

the door, had engaged all his best apartments ; which, he said, must plead his excuse for offering us an indifferent room. We requested that, '*pour nous dédommager*,' he would give us an excellent dinner. To our great astonishment this order was apparently executed in a few minutes ; but when we attempted to eat what was placed on the table, we found (what indeed might have been expected from so hasty a preparation) that the dishes consisted of the heated remains of some former repast. Unable to swallow these broken victuals, we requested something fresh. Our civil landlord said he was very sorry he had nothing in his house. 'Pray give us at least a mutton chop.'—'It is quite impossible, sir: my lord has ordered every thing in my larder.'—Disgusted and irritated by this insolent refusal, I called for the bill, and, paying nearly a *louis* for what we had seen, but not eaten, we removed to another inn, called *La Tête Noire*, where we obtained a good dinner, civil attendance, and a comfortable apartment.

"I only mention this anecdote to convey to you some idea of the aristocratic impertinence which is often met with in these democratic republics.—To conclude: I learned that the man who showed such profound respect for 'my lord' and such contempt for an humble commoner, is a great jacobin, and celebrated for his professed attachment to 'liberty and equality.'—On the continent these things are talked of, and thus followed up: in England, we do not profess such principles, but in practice we enjoy them.

"Friday, Sept. 24.—We set out this morning in very fine weather for Geneva, at the gates of which we arrived about two o'clock.

"As we purpose commencing our Italian journey in the course of this week, we have taken up our present residence at *Les Balances*, the principal inn within the walls of Geneva, in preference to occupying our old apartments at *Secheron*,—having several preparatory arrangements to make; for all of which the situation of the town is more convenient than that of the neighbourhood.

"Thus concluded our Swiss tour, which, though imperfect (as the political state of Zurich deprived us of the pleasure of seeing that interesting canton), has still afforded us the highest gratification. The beauties of Switzerland are so various; there is such an extraordinary combination of the grand and mild features of nature, of the sublime and lovely; of wild and cultivated scenery; that it is almost impossible to conceive unwitnessed the satisfaction which one enjoys in traveling through this delightful country. Here, towering Alps, mountains of ice, extensive lakes, and loud-sounding cataracts: there, cornfields, vineyards, pleasure-grounds, lofty trees, plains of unequalled verdure, level roads, and smiling villages. In one canton, all the pomp and ceremony of the church of Rome, accompanied very generally by dirt, idleness, and comparative indigence: in another, the unadorned worship of the Supreme Being in simple rustic meeting-houses filled with congregations of orderly, well-dressed, and well-looking peasantry. The variety of religion is not more remarkable than the variety of costume; every canton has its distinguishing habit; and while each differs from the other, all of them have a character peculiar to this country, and totally unlike the dresses

dresses of any other nation in modern Europe. Many of the female fashions are very becoming; and I have seen some girls, so accoutred, who would have excited the praises of admiration even in London or in Paris. In some parts of Switzerland, the women wear large straw hats, ornamented with roses and wild flowers: in others, black beavers, with gold bands. Their hair is sometimes folded in tresses round their heads; sometimes enclosed in plaits, which are so long as to reach their feet; and sometimes covered by a black lace cap of singular shape. Their jackets are of different forms and different colors. A short petticoat here discovers a red stocking, with a wooden slipper; and there, a white one, with a black leather sandal of peculiar form. In short, the eccentricities of dress are innumerable: and in traveling in this country, a man may easily imagine himself at a masquerade.

"The appearance of the people, with some exceptions, is respectable. There seems still to reign much comfort, independence, and general ease.

"The houses in most of the villages are of wood, and are frequently built without chimneys,—the smoke being allowed to make its way through the windows. This is an inconvenience not arising from poverty, for many of the houses so constructed belong to persons in affluent circumstances, and contain rooms of some extent, but occasioned by the prevalence of long usage, which has not yet yielded to the improvements of the present day.

"The Swiss are a tall, athletic, hardy race of men: civil, reserved, and cautious in all their proceedings: much attached to their own

country and customs; zealous advocates of rational freedom; inclined to military exertion; and entertaining a violent antipathy to their neighbours and oppressors, the French nation. Having given them this character, it is almost needless for me to add, that, if France wishes to sink the name of Switzerland into that of a department of the republic 'one and indivisible,' she can only succeed in her object by superior force: voluntarily this brave people will never become the vassal of that or any other country whatever.

"We strolled yesterday evening, after our arrival at Geneva, accompanied by some American friends, to see the junction of the Rhone and the Arve, which takes place very near the town. This promenade is delightful; and the object which we went to see fully answered our expectation.

"On returning, just before we entered the gates, we found a party of English gentlemen playing at cricket. This sport, new in the country where it was now exhibited, excited no little portion of Genevese curiosity.

"As we proceeded towards our inn, we passed by the house where Rousseau was born. It is now a barber's shop, and is a mean shabby building. Over it is written, on a brass plate, 'Ici naquit Jean Jacques Rousseau.' You will readily believe that I looked on this humble roof with more interest than I have often experienced on viewing the proudest palaces. The birth of genius fully entitles it to the notice and observation of all strangers who have been moved by the animated language or entertained with the eccentricities of that extraordinary man."

ACCOUNT of VERDUN, and the OCCUPATIONS of the ENGLISH detained there.

[From Mr. FORBES'S LETTERS from FRANCE.]

“Verdun, Decem. 17, 1803.

“AS we had but one day more for our specified arrival at this place, and twenty leagues to travel, we were obliged to depart at so early an hour as to prevent us from seeing distinctly any part of Châlons, which is a considerable town, and capital of the department of the Marne. The first four posts from thence to Orbeval offered little worthy of remark but the church of a village about two leagues on our journey, whose exterior presents one of the finest examples of the enriched gothic I had ever seen. Tradition, for I have no historical evidence, states it to have been built by the English, when in possession of this part of France; and this circumstance, whether founded in fact or not, rendered it an interesting object to me. On approaching Orbeval we passed the heights of Valmy, from whence the Prussian army, which was supposed to be on its march to Paris to reinstate Louis XVI. on his throne, so unexpectedly retreated in September 1792, and that excellent prince left to fall a sacrifice to the Jacobin faction. The next stage brought us to St. Menchould, the spot in which the king was discovered in his flight from Paris to Montmédi. This sad catastrophe, from which such a stream of horrors has flowed, is too well known for me to repeat its melancholy history. Drouet the postmaster, who made the fatal discovery, is, at this time, the deputy prefect of the place. On descending the heights from St. Mene-

ould we left the department of the Marne, for that of the Meuse, of which Verdun is a principal town, and proceeded onward to Clermont en Argonne, a place of little consequence, but in the road to it the face of the country changed from dreary plains to all the pleasing variety of hill and dale, domestic cultivation and forest scenery. This beautiful country, however, did not continue, but that through which we since passed is well cultivated, and appeared to possess a considerable population.

“The day had closed before we reached Verdun, when we stopped at the barrier, and, after our passport had been examined, we were ordered to alight and walk to the citadel; but, from the darkness and rain of the night, were permitted to return to our carriage, which, attended by two soldiers, conveyed us through gates and over drawbridges to the quarters of the commandant; where we were all examined as to country, age, profession, &c. My portrait was then taken gratis for the third time, and our visit concluded with being informed, that I must not pass the town gates, but might walk on the ramparts: that I must appear at the hôtel de ville every morning at ten o'clock, and repair to my lodging every night at the tolling of the great bell of the cathedral. Thus ended our journey to Verdun, where, for the first time, in rather an eventful life, I find myself deprived of my liberty, and confined within the walls of a fortress.”

“Verdun,

“Verdun, Decem. 31, 1803.

“HAD I written to you under first impressions, I should perhaps have troubled you with little more than an account of my unpropitious journey to this place; no very amusing subject, I assure you: I have therefore waited till I have the satisfaction to inform you that we are settled in a comfortable lodging, with a physician's family, to whom we were recommended from Paris; which, considering there are eight hundred English already here, and more expected, is no trifling acquisition. We have also been able to procure music, drawing, French, and dancing-masters for my daughter. Parisian excellence is not to be expected in Verdun masters: Vestris demanded a louis per lesson for dancing at Paris; here, M. Boriquet, the first professor in the place, humbly asked only ten sous: the drawing-master, having studied six years at Rome, expects fifteen pence, and for music we are to give a shilling a lesson. Mons. Harpin, the French master, is professor of the belles lettres in the college, and formerly professor of chemistry at the central school of Verdun: he was a priest before the revolution, when, being absolved from his vows, he married; and is now the father of a family. The singing-master has been forty years one of the choristers at the cathedral, a worthy old gentleman; who tells us many sad stories of revolutionary phrensy at Verdun: among other wanton sallies, he saw a sacrilegious party enter the church, proceed to the sacred repository of the consecrated wafers for the Eucharist, and give those holy symbols to be eaten by the dogs they had brought in for the purpose.

“We might certainly have been

in a more uncomfortable situation; but, still, it is rather trying to a British spirit to be compelled to appear every morning at the general appel of the English, and at nine in the evening, when the great bell of the cathedral tolls, to be compelled to repair to our lodgings, or be sent to prison. A walk without the gates is at present prohibited; at the same time the promenades within the walls are pleasanter than most of those which I have seen in fortified places. The town stands on very unequal ground: the citadel, cathedral, and episcopal palace, are on the summit of a lofty hill, in the vicinity of shady walks, and fine prospects; particularly from the gardens of the episcopal residence, and the adjacent parade. The bishop's palace, now inhabited by the sous-préfet, and many of the best houses, are situated on the summit of the hill near the cathedral; on its acclivity, and immediately surrounding it, is the rest of the town; which consists of several streets, with many good houses and well-furnished shops; particularly those selling liqueurs and confectionary, for which Verdun is famous. The convents and nunneries, formerly amounting to eighteen, are all suppressed; and the parish churches reduced from twenty to three. The lower part of Verdun, where we reside, is pleasingly diversified with wood and water, fields and gardens. The Meuse flows here through verdant meadows with great rapidity; and in its principal stream and different branches, forms several noisy cascades over the artificial precipices from which it rushes into the town. Here the ramparts are shaded by large trees, and the walks through the meadows planted with osiers,

osiers, willows, and alders, a scene very unlike the interior of a fortress, and bearing a great resemblance to Dhirboy in the East Indies, where I so long resided among the peaceful Brahmins. Such is the place of our captivity."

"Verdun, Jan. 29, 1804.

"I EMBRACE a safe opportunity to thank you for your letter dated on Christmas day; which I received unopened. What a treasure of kindness and comfortable intelligence from our friends and native home! We are here kept in total ignorance of what passes in the political world on both sides of the channel; the newspapers of this country give us no authentic intelligence; and not an English one have we seen since the month of June, except the scurrilous *Argus*, or *London* reviewed in Paris; which is printed in English, and published three times a week; but as it is the only vehicle by which we can obtain intelligence of any kind from England, I am among the subscribers to this infamous paper.

"We hear various reports concerning the Verdun captives, who at present amount to near eight hundred, some of whom are daily removing to Biche and Charlemont; but I give such rumour no credit; sufficient for the day is the evil thereof. We continue to be favoured with good health and spirits; my personal restrictions are few; for general Wirion has lately excused me from appearing at the municipality more than once in five days, and given me permission to walk or ride out of the gates when I please; but the weather, ever since our arrival, has been too rainy and tempestuous to enjoy

that satisfaction. In the mean time we amuse ourselves as much as we can within the walls: but that you may exactly know our situation, I will give you a short sketch of one Verdun day, which may serve for a general diary, as the days here succeed each other with little variety, except from the hopes, fears, and anxieties, which our peculiar destiny naturally suggests.

"About nine o'clock, after attending the appel, we breakfast à l'Anglaise. My daughter then attends to her studies. Her mother looks to her domestic engagements; and my hours pass on in a succession of reading, writing, and drawing. At three my brother joins us on the public promenade, a dry and shady eminence, in the midst of meadows, gardens, groves, water-falls, and rivers, although within the walls of a garrison; we dine together at five, and in the evening are often joined by our English acquaintance, and a very few French visitors. We are happy in a small selection of the former, with whom we can enjoy something of 'the feast of reason and the flow of soul.' We have here English gentlemen in the army, navy, law, physic, and divinity; and many very amiable, as well as highly qualified persons among them. A large college hall has also been permitted to be commodiously fitted up as a place of public worship; where a numerous congregation assembles every Sunday morning: one of the clergymen has undertaken to perform the sacred offices of our church, and is occasionally assisted by his clerical brethren who are among our fellow-prisoners. The general also, by way of entertaining the English, sent for comedians from Metz; and the

the theatre at Verdun is now constantly open, either for the comedy or opera: he has also encouraged a subscription-ball, concert, and other amusements; among them I wish I was not under the necessity of adding a gaming-table: these, with many, will certainly render captivity less irksome; but the English and French do not associate well together in their diversions: I think, indeed, the separation is gradually increasing; and if we have no spies among ourselves, we shall perhaps be the happier for it.

“After a very slight supper we close the day by reading the best of books, and joining in grateful adoration to that being who graciously hears the prayer of the prisoners.”

“Verdun, Feb. 13, 1804.

“I SHOULD sooner have acknowledged your kind favour accompanying the *Henriade*, had I possessed a single topic to render a letter interesting or entertaining. You, who reside in the gay metropolis, have no idea of the monotony which reigns in a fortress cut off from all communication with the rest of the world: day succeeds to day without variety, and this scene of dull uniformity is only interrupted by the dreadful anxiety which pervades some minds, when informed that, for the delinquency of a few individuals, who have effected their escape, prisons, dungeons, bolts, and bars, are preparing for their unfortunate countrymen. However, as the French papers inform you that we are eating, drinking, dancing, singing, and playing all day long, I will leave you to draw your own conclusions; and assure you that your friends from the Ho-

1806.

tel de la Rochefoucault, in whose welfare you so kindly interest yourself, are neither depressed by the rumours of increased severity, nor elated with the hope of a speedy deliverance, reports of which are sometimes circulated among the listening crowds of captives, and cause a momentary gleam of joy to gladden their hearts. The expectation of our freedom has however a very different effect upon the generality of the Verdunois, especially the shopkeepers who are fattening at our expence; having raised the price of their commodities almost double since our arrival: nevertheless, Verdun is altogether a cheap place, as you will readily believe when you have looked over the table accompanying this letter; and on which you may rely, as I took considerable pains to obtain a correct account. It is calculated that the English spend here several thousand pounds a week, which is a gold mine of some consequence to a French provincial town, where not long ago the officers upon garrison duty had a dinner of three removes, a dessert, and a bottle of wine each, for thirty-six livres per month; and a family could live in a good style, and keep a horse and cabriolet, for an hundred pounds a year. It is not so with the English, though they cannot complain of the charges being exorbitant: our small family, for instance, is comfortably accommodated in a first floor, consisting of four rooms well furnished, together with a coach-house, stables and other conveniences, and are provided with linen, glass, and china-ware, at a guinea a week. We have a plentiful dinner, and drink Champagne and other good wines, at four louis a week: adding two more for fuel, washing, grocery

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and other necessities, we can for one guinea a day partake of the enjoyments of animal life : intellectual feasts, indeed, and above all, sweet liberty with all her ineffable charms, must for the present remain amongst the pleasures of imagination. We are indeed informed, that when the English have spent a little more of their money in Ver-

dun, they will be ordered to some other poor town, that it may be enriched in the same manner ; Verdun having been highly favoured by Bonapartè, in consequence of a petition from the inhabitants complaining of their poverty, since a large part of the garrison was withdrawn to join the army of England."

LIBERATION from VERDUN.

[From the Same.]

" June 4, 1804.

" **W**EEK succeeds week, but no answer have I yet received from the national institute, or his excellency the war minister ; perhaps they are so engrossed at Paris by their new dignities, and preparations for the imperial coronation, that all affairs of less consequence are procrastinated *sine die* : thus hope languishes ; the summer advances, and both Bareges, and England, appear at a distance. Our journey to Varennes has given offence to the higher powers, and the English are now prohibited from extending their walks and rides beyond two leagues from the gates of Verdun. This is indeed of little consequence, as nothing can be less interesting than the general face of the country, or more dull than the towns and villages in this part of France : but, as I have already mentioned, we sometimes enjoy a pleasant spot in the woody regions, which compose our boundary. M. Cajot, the gentleman whose house we occupy, was formerly inspector of the forests, and, having a perfect knowledge of the country, kindly points

out every thing that may be agreeable to our taste. To him I am indebted for most of my rural sketches, and particularly for a day of tranquillity and repose in the forest of Towane, four or five miles from hence, which he described not only for the picturesque beauty of the woods, but for the ruins of an hermitage, an image of the Virgin venerated by pilgrims, and a sacred fountain springing among the rocks, and fertilizing the meadows of Bourraux, a farm in the adjacent valley, which we made our head quarters. The idea was pleasing, nor did the reality disappoint us : we left our carriage at the farm, when following the course of a rivulet we reached its source at the foot of the woody hills, which suddenly terminate the valley. The fountain is small, but its limpid current has been for ages celebrated for its miraculous virtues in healing fevers, for which it was formerly much frequented. At present, I believe, a certain portion of cortex Peruviana is thought to be a more efficacious febrifuge. On the mossy banks above it, we found

found the decaying shrine of the Virgin, and her mutilated image enwreathed with garlands of flowers. While we were contemplating these objects, the distant sounds of vocal and instrumental music saluted us: and soon after, we beheld, on the surrounding hills, a long procession of priests and choristers, with silken banners and crucifixes, attended by the peasants in their best attire, returning from the Virgin of the Fountain, to finish their solemn rites at the church. It was the Fête Dieu, or Corpus Christi, one of the most sacred festivals in the Roman church. This gave an interest to the scene. From the fountain, a steep narrow path, through thick embowering wood, led us to the hermitage, or rather the remains of this sacred edifice, which many centuries was the successive residence of one of those religious characters, who think it more necessary to their own salvation, to lead a life of solitude and penance, than by fulfilling the useful and delightful duties of social and domestic life. Philibert, the last of these anchorites, died suddenly at the age of ninety, as he was ascending the heights with a pitcher of water from the sacred spring; and a cross indicates the place of his sepulture. It has been somewhat mutilated by revolutionary barbarism, and the hermitage and its other appendages were nearly destroyed. Some flowers still wildly spring on the site of the adjoining garden, surrounded by an amphitheatre of wood, except in front of the hermitage, which, overlooking the nether groves, commands an extensive view of ten leagues over a rich and fertile country, where you distinguish Etain, L'anguy, and other towns, with upwards of sixty villages. Such was the situation

selected by the anchorites for their humble abode, where they were constantly visited and fed by a concourse of pilgrims of both sexes, attracted by their reputed sanctity, and the salutary effects of the sacred waters."

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"Verdun, June 11, 1804.

"LONG since should I have answered your kind note, accompanying the letter from sir Joseph Banks, but I had too much reason to suppose you would not receive it: and I wished also to send you some satisfactory intelligence. Some weeks ago I received a very polite letter from monsieur Cuvier, secretary to the national institute at Paris, with an assurance of every exertion being made in my favour with the minister of war; but although his letter was dated on the 19 Floreal, (9th of May) I have not yet heard any thing either directly or indirectly, on the very interesting subject of my emancipation. I must, however, acknowledge, that we enjoy here, from the amiable and excellent characters of both sexes which form our society, every rational comfort and pleasure which our situation will admit. Among our chief privileges I consider a regular and becoming attendance on public worship: we have five or six English clergymen at Verdun, one of whom has taken on himself the stated pastoral office, and is occasionally assisted by two other clerical gentlemen of great merit.

"Yesterday was the second commemoration of the Fête Dieu, when the whole city was converted into a forest: the neighbouring woods were despoiled of their honours to decorate the streets of Verdun, and conceal the walls of the houses; while the market-place

and open spaces were filled with bowers, hermitages, cascades, groves, and gardens, surrounding temporary altars, enriched with images, crucifixes, pictures, lighted candles, and all the appendages of the Roman worship. The whole was enlivened by living shepherdesses, selected from the prettiest children in Verdun, each having a lamb adorned with flowers and ribbands, and embowered in the verdant recesses. They were also attended by little boys, clad in skins, tending the same innocent animals, in reference to John the Baptist. The parishes vie with each other in the splendour and expence of their decorations, prepared for the religious procession from the cathedral; which, at different times of the day, visits every altar in the town. This procession consists of all the clergy and choristers, attending the host, carried under a crimson canopy, with incense, banners, crucifixes, and all the pomp of former times. A military detachment, with a band of martial music, accompanies the show, playing solemn airs. At the beat of drum the host is elevated; when the officers, soldiers, and all the populace kneel down in the streets to receive the benediction; which is repeated at every temporary altar. The whole concludes with a solemn rite at the cathedral. Among the choristers were two girls in nuns habits; so that after all which has lately happened, I shall not be surprised at any revival in France; so rapidly do these people pass from one extreme to another."

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"Verdun, June 14, 1804.

"THIS day I received your letter, dated on my natal morn, and replete with the fond effusions of a

sister's heart. You need no assurances that mine beats in unison; and, in return, I will cause yours to overflow with joy. I can hardly hold my pen, or connect an idea to tell you of our felicity: indeed, it was at first such a mingled sensation of pain and pleasure, as almost to prevent the power of utterance: in short, your brother is free. Yesterday evening I finished a letter to our valuable friend Dr. ———, and after keeping it open for several days, in hopes of better intelligence, I closed it almost in despair, as upwards of a month had elapsed, without any answer to the request, through the national institute, for our liberation: never had my spirits been so depressed since the period of our captivity. At eight o'clock this morning our bell rang, and one of the gens-d'armes was ushered up stairs; his smiling countenance indicated good news, and he communicated the glad tidings that general Wirion had just received a letter from Paris, with a passport for our proceeding to England, and that he wished to see me with Eliza as soon as convenient: the news was too much for us; and the soldier participated in our mingled emotions. When the first agitation was a little calmed we went to the general, and were received by him and his lady, not merely with politeness, but with the warmth of friendly sympathy and delight. He desired us to peruse the letter from the minister of war, containing the emperor's permission for my return to England, and that I had the choice either of Rochelle or Morlaix for our embarkation. I preferred the latter, but requested to proceed by the way of Paris, which he kindly granted, and desired me to name any day for leaving Verdun, and

passports

passports should be ready ; even this very day, if we thought proper. Knowing myself now perfectly safe under imperial favour and imperial mandates, and having several things to do, we have deferred our departure until the 19th, when we intend setting off for Paris, from whence you may be sure of hearing again from us.

“ The gens-d’armes communicated the news of our liberation at the morning appel, when we received the warm and affectionate congratulations of our friends and fellow-prisoners : in which, I believe, envy had no share ; yet, if any thing might excuse such an emotion, it was an occasion like the present. Some alloy, however, must be mingled with all terrestrial blessings, and ours is imperfect, while I leave an only brother and his family in captivity. Indeed, I can truly say our joy will not be complete until every one of our fellow-captives is equally free.”

— “ June 19, 1804.

“ WITH sensations I shall not pretend to describe, I am now seated beneath the shade of a poplar grove, near a small cascade, with the citadel of Verdun in my view, where I am waiting for the carriage which is to conduct myself and my family to the sea-shore ; and from thence, I trust, we shall soon be wafted by a southern gale to the land of Liberty.

“ We rose early, having, even to the last hour, many things to do, and many kind friends to interrupt us in all our doings. The cathedral clock struck seven as I passed the gates of Verdun, and presented myself, for the last time, to the gens-d’armes at the barrier. We came to Verdun in the depth of winter, amidst rain and wind, and

depressed by ill-forebodings of every kind ; while we leave it in the midst of summer, when nature is gay and cheerful, and arrayed in the utmost beauty. I am writing in a meadow of new-mown hay, with a delightful prospect all around me, and cheered by a choir of nightingales. The road before me is covered with peasants bearing their country commodities to the Verdun market ; while their children are loaded with baskets of cherries and strawberries, with which the woods abound.

“ We proceeded on our journey to Châlons through a country already described, which was now enriched with its summer dress, and enlivened by the active scenery of the hay-harvest. The want of daylight, and extreme fatigue both of body and mind, prevented our seeing Châlons in our way to Verdun ; we therefore took the present opportunity of viewing all that it offers to the passing traveller. The houses are, in general, of ancient structure ; but the prefecture and some other buildings, are in a good style of modern architecture. The convents had been either destroyed or converted to ordinary purposes, but the churches have been suffered to remain. The spires of the cathedral are peculiarly light and elegant, but the images and other sculptures which enriched the exterior, were destroyed at the revolution, and within, its appearance is very inferior to the general figure of the French churches. This place is recovering very fast from all other revolutionary injuries, and has a considerable trade in silk and woollen stuffs, in linen and other manufactures. It is situated on the Marne and is also washed by two inferior rivers ; but its communication with

the capital by water takes the circuit of an hundred leagues ; while, by land, its distance is no more than forty-one. The walls, bridges, and public edifices, are in an actual state of reparation ; and every circumstance, within our observation, indicates a very thriving place. Châlons is often mentioned in the ancient history of France. Attila is related to have been defeated on its plains ; and it must live in every one's recollection, that the Prussian army, on its march towards Paris, in the year 1792, received a check in its vicinity, which destroyed the flattering prospects of the royalists. Nor can I forget its delicious wine, particularly the red Champagne, which gratifies the palate and cheers the spirits of the captives of Verdun."

— " June 20.

" At an early hour we proceeded to Jâlons to breakfast. It is no more than a village, but well known for its cakes, which retain their eatable state for twelve months, and are sent to Russia and other distant countries. Two posts onwards brought us to Epernay, a large old town on the banks of the Marne. It was taken by Henry IV, in 1592: and here it was that the *maréchal* Biron was killed while the king was leaning on his shoulder. The country through which we passed produces abundance of grain, potatoes, and pulse, with vines on the uplands ; but we could not but be sensible of that want of animation which distinguishes the landscapes of England. We met very few persons on the roads, and saw no cattle at any distance from the villages.

" Epernay is situated between lofty hills covered with vineyards, which extend to Aye, Hauteville,

and other towns in Champagne, celebrated for the finest wine, and from whence the royal cellars were formerly supplied. On leaving this place, we ascended the hills, when a very rich and ever-varying prospect presented itself to us. Hill and dale, wood and water, corn-fields and vineyards, gardens and orchards, successively composed it ; with an interspersing of towns and villages, modern châteaux, and the ruined towers of ancient castles rising above the gloom of groves which clothe the sides of the mountains. The Marne, both in its distant and approaching meanders, completed the scene. The ruins of the castle of D'arcy was, however, my favourite spot in this delightful part of our journey. In two posts we arrived at Port à Binson on the Marne, whose trade is in wood and charcoal, and from thence proceeded through Dormans, a small town, with some handsome public buildings, to the romantic village of Paroy : the road was occasionally regaled with the fragrance of the beans in full blossom, whimsically planted among the vines, and is bordered with walnut and cherry-trees. At Dormans we quitted the department of the Marne, for that of the Aisne, already mentioned ; but the romantic scenery of the former, in a great measure, continued till we reached Château Thierry, which appearing to be an ancient and interesting place, we were induced to remain there the rest of the day. The ruins of its castle, the towers of the churches, the large barracks and other lofty buildings, rendered it a striking object as we viewed it at a distance : but it did not answer our expectation. Its streets, however, are clean, the inhabitants, particularly the women, remarkably

ably neat in their persons, no very common provincial circumstance; and it gave birth to *La Fontaine*. The castle is converted into a prison, and when visited by some English gentlemen in their way to Verdun they found two of their countrymen confined there in separate cells, and in extreme distress.

They declared that they were altogether ignorant of the cause of their confinement: but we have since heard that they had first betrayed their own country, and had afterwards become objects of suspicion to the government which had received their traitorous services."

CLASSICAL AND POLITE CRITICISM.

On certain ELEMENTS of GRAMMAR.

[From Mr. BARRON'S LECTURES ON BELLES LETTRES.]

“THE only remaining circumstance concerning gender, of importance sufficient to attract attention in an inquiry so general as the present, is the principles which seem to have guided the practice, both of the ancients and moderns, in the classification of nouns expressive of substances of no sex. The proper arrangement would have been, to have made all nouns, not naturally significant of sex, of no gender. This, however, is found not to be the case; for many of these nouns are elevated to the rank of males or females. Two analogies which influenced the conduct of antiquity, still appear to regulate the practice of the French and Italians, and even of ourselves, when we personify, or assign gender to inanimate substances. The former regarded termination; the latter signification. If a noun had a masculine termination, it was raised to the masculine gender, though it inherited no other claim to that pre-eminence. Accordingly, *ventus* and *fluvius* are masculine in Latin, *δῖνος* and *χρυσός* in Greek. For no better reason were nouns often remitted to the feminine gender, - as *semita*, *cathedra*, *πρόμνη*, *μάχαιρα*. So powerful, sometimes, was this principle, as to counteract even the analogy of nature, and to banish to the neuter gender, nouns which, from their

signification, ought to have been made masculine or feminine. Thus *mancipium* in Latin, and *ἀνδροπαδόν* in Greek, both significant of a human creature, were banished to the class of neuters, on account of their termination. In French, *malheur* is masculine, and *maladie* feminine, for a similar reason.

“But signification chiefly seems to have guided the French, in assigning genders to words expressive of neuter substances; and the English, when they personify. Hence nouns, naturally neuter, but denoting something powerful, vigorous, or energetic; as *tonnerre*, *canon*, *transport*, are arranged among masculines; while nouns, significant of capacity, or something prolific, beautiful, or passive, as *chaleur*, *vertu*, *montagne*, *mer*, are associated with the class of feminines. But to this rule there are many exceptions in the French language.

“Articles and adjectives are employed to restrict and explain substantives; and before we relinquish this branch of our subject, they are entitled to some portion of attention.

“Articles are little words prefixed to substantives, or to other parts of speech, used as substantives, to enlarge or circumscribe their meaning. The purpose they serve, will be readily understood from the following simple theory. When we survey any object we never saw before,

before, or speak about an object with which we are not intimately acquainted, the first thing we do to distinguish or ascertain it, is to refer it to its species, or to class it with other objects of its species, of which we have the knowledge. For instance, we would say, *a tree, a house, a horse, a man*, when we wished to denote any individual of these classes which we had never before seen, and of which we knew nothing but its species from its appearance. These objects are individuals of the species called *trees, houses, horses, or men*; and must therefore possess the common qualities of their respective species.

“But, on surveying the same objects a second time, and recollecting our former acquaintance with them, or their own peculiar properties, we would not express our sentiments of them in the same language we did at first. Besides referring them to their species, we would now signify the additional ideas of having formerly seen them, and of having been made acquainted with their nature, or distinction; and would therefore employ the following phraseology, the tree, the house, the horse, the man. The article *a* is called indefinite, because it refers the object to its species only, and denotes our conceptions of it no farther than the common qualities of the species extend. The article *the* is called definite, because it discriminates the object to which it is prefixed from all others of the same species, and denotes our previous acquaintance with it, or its own particular characteristics. A king, a commander, a bookseller, express any individuals of the order of men called kings, commanders, booksellers. But the king, the commander, the bookseller, circum-

scribe the expression, and signify the king of a particular nation, the commander of a particular army, the bookseller of peculiar eminence, or of some particular town.

“In respect of articles, our own is, perhaps, the most perfect language in the world. The Greek, the French, the Italian, and the Spanish, possess only the definite article. The Greeks, indeed, supplied the place of the indefinite article, by the absence of the definite; the Italians, the Spaniards, and the French, by the adjective *one*. The Romans neither had articles, nor supplied the place of them by any expedient. Their conduct, in this instance, is one cause of the hesitation and suspense to which the reader is sometimes reduced in perusing their splendid, but occasionally equivocal language. A few examples will illustrate these remarks.

“The following phrase, *amicus imperatoris*, admits no fewer than four different interpretations. It may denote either, a friend of a commander, a friend of the commander, the friend of the commander, or the friend of a commander. The Latin reader must collect from the context which of these interpretations it is proper to prefer. He can receive no assistance from the words themselves. The Greek language would distinguish the first sense by the words φίλος ἡγεμόνος, the second by φίλος τοῦ ἡγεμόνος, the third by ὁ φίλος τοῦ ἡγεμόνος, and the last, by ὁ φίλος ἡγεμόνος. The French would express the first meaning, by *un ami d'un chef*, the second, by *un ami du chef*, the third, by *l'ami du chef*, and the last, by *l'ami d'un chef*. Again, the phrase, *præbe mihi panem*, may be translated either, Give me bread, that

that is, bread in opposition to sugar or wine, or, Give me the bread, which is used at the table. The Greek language can distinguish these meanings, and, to convey the former, would employ the words, *δὸς μοι ἄρτον*, but to convey the latter, the words *δὸς μοι τὸν ἄρτον*. The French would express the former, by *donnez moi du pain*, the latter, by *donnez moi le pain*. The phraseology of Italy and Spain, on this occasion, is perfectly analogous to that of France.

“Between adjectives and participles there is no difference, except that the latter, along with their primary signification, denote the additional idea of time. Both serve to notify the qualities or attributes, and to define or illustrate the meaning, of substantives. Thus the qualities of a man are, black, white, young, old, strong, weak, tall, little; of a horse, black, brown, white, grey, fat, lean, swift, slow; which qualities all tend to describe or distinguish the man or the horse of which we speak, and to discriminate them from all others of their species. I have already made remarks on the genders of adjectives; it remains only to offer a few observations on their comparison.

“All adjectives that denote qualities susceptible of augmentation or diminution, and almost all qualities are so, are susceptible of comparison. It is unnecessary to criticise the propriety of the grammatical word *comparison*, or to inquire whether it can be applied to what is called the positive degree, or the adjective itself. We have no leisure to scrutinize or to rectify the loose and scholastic language of grammarians, and must, therefore, be satisfied with expressing what the subject calls us to explain.

“It was of great consequence in the formation of language, never to descend farther to particulars than was absolutely necessary; because it more completely preserved the simplicity of expression, and rendered communication more easy and expeditious. For this reason, though the degrees of augmentation of which a quality is susceptible may be almost infinite, yet the framers of languages have been content with marking two stages only of these degrees. By the former is signified, that of two qualities compared, one is greater than the other; by the latter is understood, that of any larger number of qualities than two compared, one is the greatest among them. It will easily be perceived, that the former of these stages is called the comparative degree; the latter, the superlative. These two stages have been found sufficient for all the purposes of social communication; and if more minuteness were sometimes necessary, such as twice, thrice, a hundred times greater, it was thought preferable to notify them, by concomitant words, rather than to encumber language, by adopting more stages of comparison than were commonly requisite. The ancient languages express these degrees of comparison chiefly by adding terminations to the adjectives themselves. The modern languages incline more to signify them by auxiliary words.

“Having explained the theory of nouns, both substantive and adjective, it will, perhaps, appear unnecessary, that I should detain you with an illustration of pronouns; the use of them being, as their name implies, to occupy the place of nouns, in order to prevent

too frequent and disagreeable repetitions of the same word: as, however, there is something singular, both in the syntax and inflections of pronouns, it will, not, I presume, be a misapplication of our time, to offer concerning them a few observations.

“Pronouns are a source of very great convenience and variety in language. Were it not for them, the substantive for which the pronoun stands, must have been repeated every time there was occasion to mention it, and the verbs of all languages would have had much less variety of termination than they possess. Suppose the contents of the following sentence were to be expressed without the use of pronouns: ‘Cæsar loved his country, his family, and his friends; but his ruling passion was ambition, and he sacrificed to it all his attachments and his duties.’ It must have appeared in this very awkward form: ‘Cæsar loved Cæsar’s country, Cæsar’s family, and Cæsar’s friends: but Cæsar’s ruling passion was ambition, and Cæsar sacrificed to ambition, all Cæsar’s attachments, and all Cæsar’s duties.’ Suppose, again, Cæsar to have addressed the senate, by a letter couched in the following terms: ‘I consent to disband my army, provided you will order my enemy Pompey to dismiss his. I cannot come to Rome in safety without my army, while he retains his near the city;’ and that he had been obliged to convey the same sentiments without the aid of pronouns. He must have employed the following words: ‘Cæsar consents to disband Cæsar’s army, provided the senate will order Cæsar’s enemy, Pompey, to dismiss Pompey’s army. Cæsar cannot come to Rome in safety without Cæsar’s army,

while Pompey retains Pompey’s army near the city.’

“It is plain, from these examples, that without the use of pronouns, the repetition of nouns would have been intolerable; and that all verbs would have been restricted to the third part of the variety of terminations they now possess. They could have retained only the terminations peculiar to the third persons of the singular and plural numbers. Because the noun requiring the third person of the verb to follow it; and the noun being always repeated without any substitution of the pronoun; the first and second persons of verbs which correspond to the pronouns of the first and second persons, would have been altogether unnecessary; and, of course, must have been banished from the number of their inflections.

“The pronoun *I* is said to be of the first person, because the speaker or the writer employs it to denote himself, and to prevent the disagreeable repetition of his name. Thou, or you, is called the pronoun of the second person, because the speaker or the writer employs it to denote the person or thing addressed, in order to prevent the too frequent recurrence of its name. To both these persons, the verbs of polished languages have adapted terminations, which contribute greatly to promote the variety and the precision of communication. *He, she, it,* are called pronouns of the third person, because they denote some third thing, or person, which has been formerly mentioned, but is not addressed. They are employed, like the other pronouns, to prevent the too frequent appearance of the nouns for which they stand; but they have no terminations of the verbs appropriated to

to them. They correspond with the terminations required by the nouns whose places they supply.

“The substantive pronouns are more numerous in English, than in any other of the polished languages, either ancient or modern. The Greeks and Latins have only three such pronouns; those of the first and second persons, *I, thou*; and the reflected pronoun of the third person, *self*, including all genders. The French, the Spaniards, and the Italians, have four; *I, thou*, denoting the first and second persons; and, as they have no neuter genders, *he*, denoting the male, and *she*, the female of the third person. The English have the pronouns of the first and second persons, *I, thou*; but preserving here, as in the case of nouns, a strict accommodation to the genders of nature, they present, in the third person, *he*, to denote the male, *she* to denote the female, and a fifth, *it*, to denote every substance of no gender, or of which the gender is unknown. The pronoun *it* is perhaps the most general word in the language, being employed to supply the place of all substantives, and even of things without names. There is not a thing in language, or in nature, which *it* may not represent.

“In respect of the pronouns of the first and second persons, the merit of polished tongues is nearly equal. In the ancient languages, it is seldom necessary to produce them, as they are readily suggested by the correspondent termination of the verb. In the modern languages, this liberty can seldom be indulged without ambiguity or affectation, because the terminations of their verbs are not sufficiently varied, to distinguish with certainty one pronoun from another. In denoting the pronoun of the third

person there is the greatest difference, and the merits of different languages are most discernible.

“Both the Greek and Latin languages are well provided with words for this purpose; *ἐγώ, ἐκείνος, αὐτός, ille, iste, hic, ipse, is*; which are all adjectives, and have all the varieties of gender, both in the singular and plural numbers. Both the French and the Italians have two pronouns of the third person, and these in the plural have likewise their varieties of gender. Our own language is here not a little defective, owing to its rigid attachment to the simplicity of nature, which is the leading principle of its structure. We have no adjective pronoun of the third person; and even the little variety we have in the singular number is diminished in the plural.

“Though we possess three pronouns, *he, she, it*, to express the third person in the singular number, yet, unless the subject of discourse be a male or a female, or some inanimate substance personified, we are not at liberty to denote that subject by any other word than *it*; and as the far greater part of the occasions on which the third person must be employed, refer to other things than males, or females, or personifications, we are in a great measure restricted, even in the singular number, to the use of *it* alone. We are still more embarrassed in the plural number, for *he, she, it*, have no other plural for them all than *they*, which also is destitute of all variety of gender.

“The ambiguity resulting from the nakedness of our language, in respect of the pronouns of the third person, is the chief defect, perhaps, to which it is obnoxious. Open only the works of any of the principal writers of the latter part

of the seventeenth century, particularly the history of lord Clarendon, or the prose compositions of Milton, and they will be found in many places scarcely intelligible, because the authors were obliged, from a deficiency of pronouns of the third person, to refer the same relative to different antecedents in the same sentence. Similar inaccuracies, though less frequent, still appear in the writings of our purest and most elegant authors. Indeed, any person in the least accustomed to correct composition, must be sensible that errors of this sort are the most difficult to be avoided in our language.

“A singularity respecting the inflections of personal pronouns must not pass unnoticed. They have almost all three cases, a nominative, a genitive, and an accusative: *I, mine, me; thou, thine, thee; he, his, him*. Some grammarians, however, contend, that *mine, thine*, are not genitives, but pronominal adjectives employed instead of *my, thy*: but one of two things must be admitted; either that they are real genitives, as our best grammarians make them, or that they are used in a manner different from these adjectives, and without being conjoined with their substantives. For in the following sentence, *my* cannot be substituted in the place of *mine*: ‘This book is mine.’ The nominative of the pronoun almost always appears before the verb, and the accusative after it; and as no other of our substantives have accusatives, the syntax of the pronouns is the only case in which we discern the tendency of our language, to adopt the analogies of the ancient languages, by assigning to the active verb the government of an accusative case.

“I have now finished the discussion of nouns, and their dependents, articles, adjectives, participles, and pronouns, which denote the first great branch of our knowledge; the names and the nature of the substantives which exist in matter or in the mind. I proceed to the discussion of verb, and its dependent adverb; which denote the second great branch of our knowledge, the actions and energies, with their modifications, which substances exert in respect of themselves, or of one another.

“The radical characteristic of the verb is action or energy. I read, run, walk, eat, drink, sit, sleep, are all expressions, declarative of some operation or exertion performed by the creature or thing that is the nominative to the verb. Every action implies existence, and the activity or patience of some agent; and hence the common definition of the verb, that it signifies to be, to do, or to suffer. It is the most intricate of all the parts of speech; and this intricacy results unavoidably from the combination of ideas it is employed to express. Let us consider the various circumstances which must be communicated by the word denoting an action. The chief of these refer to time and manner.

“In relating an action, it is not sufficient for the purposes of communication to signify barely its existence; it is commonly requisite to be more particular, and to notify whether it is finished, is finishing, or will be finished. Hence arises the necessity that the verb, along with the signification of action, should likewise express time. But the manner also of the execution of the action is often of great importance to be communicated. For example, whether the agent operated

rated with deliberation, confidence, and resolution, or with embarrassment, hesitation, and suspicion; whether he commanded the performance of the action, or signified only his inclination that it should be performed. Hence resulted the necessity, that the verb, along with the signification of action and time, should also denote manner. You will easily perceive in these observations the origin of the tenses and moods of verbs.

“As it was necessary that the circumstances of time and manner should attend the signification of action; the next important step in the formation of language, was to determine by what means this combined communication should be accomplished. One of two methods, it seems, must have been adopted; either to vary the terminations of the verb, or to conjoin with it auxiliary words, so as to convey these additional circumstances.—The former of these methods, with a mixture of the latter, in the passive form of their verbs, was employed by the Greeks and Romans. The latter method, with a mixture of the former, in the active form of their verbs, has been adopted by the English, the French, and the Italians.

“The structure of the verb was rendered still more complicated, because it was found requisite, that along with the signification of action, time, and manner, it should also denote person and number, to adapt it for corresponding with the persons and numbers of nouns and pronouns with which it might be connected. To combine together so many important articles in the inflections of one word, required a degree of ingenuity, which nothing could supply but the discernment and experience of ages.

“In respect of time, it may perhaps be imagined, on the first view, that it would be sufficient for the purposes of communication, if the verb denoted the general division of it, into past, present, and future; but a little experience would discover the imperfections of this arrangement. The very fleeting nature, indeed, of present time, made any subdivision of it both difficult and unnecessary; and for this reason all polished languages, according to the general opinion of grammarians, have in any mood one tense only appropriated to express it. A similar opinion seems to have guided the construction of languages for expressing future time. That future time, including a long duration, was divisible into parts, must soon have been perceived; but the total ignorance in which mankind are involved concerning actions that may take place in that period, must have divested them of all disposition to mark differences of future time, or to provide language with tenses for that purpose.

“Hence appears the reason why all polished languages, except the Greek, have also been contented with one tense, expressive of future time. The Greeks, it has been supposed, wished to circumscribe future time, by their tense denominated *paulo post futurum*, by which they intended to signify that the action was future; but would not be long so, as the time of its execution would quickly arrive.—This tense, however, must be considered as a specimen of the ingenuity of the Greeks, and of their great zeal to cultivate and improve their language, rather than as requisite for the communication of knowledge; for it very rarely occurs in any of their works. Later grammarians

grammarians controvert even the existence of this tense.

“The past, then, is the time which the framers of all languages have been chiefly anxious to subdivide. Most of the actions which could be the subject of discourse or writing, must have taken place in past time; and to render the accounts of them more conspicuous and intelligible, it must often have been requisite to specify the progress, or the stages, of their execution. Hence the various divisions of past time, and the different tenses significant of them, with which all languages, even the most imperfect, abound. Of polished languages, the least complete, in this respect, have three divisions; a pluperfect tense, by which is signified that the action is finished, and that some time has intervened since it was completed; a perfect, which denotes that the action is finished, but that very little or no time has elapsed since its completion; and an imperfect, which signifies that the action had been going on, but had not been completed. These are all the tenses significant of past time, possessed by the language of ancient Rome.

“But the Greek language, the English, and the French, besides these tenses, employ another, which the Greeks call an aorist, and which denotes only, that the action is completed, without distinguishing in what division of past time the completion took place, or whether the execution was pluperfect, perfect, or imperfect.

“If we attend to the usual course of speaking and writing, we will find, that this state of an action very frequently occurs; and, therefore, that a tense adapted to express it is of singular convenience and advantage. In numerous cases, the completion of the action is the only circumstance of consequence to be communicated; and in all such cases, the aorist is the proper tense to be employed. The language of ancient Rome retains, on this occasion, a portion of that ambiguity, to which it must be allowed to be obnoxious in some other articles. For it is from the sense of the context only, that the hearer or the reader can discover whether *amavi* denotes the aorist ἐφίλησα, *j'aimai*, I loved, or the perfect past, πεφίληκα, *j'ai aimé*, I have loved.”

COMPARATIVE ESTIMATE OF ANCIENT AND MODERN WRITERS.

[From the Same.]

“ONE of the most singular appearances in the history of society, is the progress of letters; and considering how extensive the period is from their first illustrious display in Greece to the present time, we can scarcely withhold

wonder that the number of compositions of merit is so small. Climate, or natural causes, may have some influence; government cannot be doubted to have a great deal; but emulation, and the love of fame, seem to be the chief causes

to

to which we are to impute the flourishing state of every species of composition, except oratory, which appears to be prompted chiefly by ambition and times of danger. As emulation and the love of fame are the principal causes to which we are to ascribe the eminence of poets, philosophers, historians, and critics, yet conspicuous exhibitions in any of these lines are to be expected only when the full and free exercise of the powers of genius and industry is countenanced, at least not discouraged by government; when society is so far advanced, so polished and enlightened, as to discover and applaud what is meritorious; and when the exertions of genius are instigated by rivalry. If we consult the history of literature, we shall find, that in the fortunate conjunctures in which all these favorable circumstances have concurred, authors of eminence have sprung up with rapidity, and in clusters, like plants from a hot-bed.

“The progress of poetry, however, is not altogether regulated by the same circumstances which are supposed to influence the production of prose compositions; and epic poetry particularly seems to constitute a remarkable exception. It appeared in Greece in the poems of Homer some centuries at least before any composition in prose which merited the attention of posterity; for it is scarcely supposeable that all productions in prose should have perished, while those in poetry remained. The singular institution of bards, and the practice of reciting at festivals and public solemnities the illustrious deeds of patriots and heroes, so consonant to the notions of a warlike and magnanimous, though an uncultivated and unpolished people,

seems to have contributed to the early perfection of epic composition. Attachment to poetry might even introduce a contempt and dislike of prose, and may help to account for the late appearance of that species of composition. It is well known, that even the laws and public acts of rude communities were sometimes written in verse.

“Among the first good compositions in prose which were produced in Greece, was probably the history of Herodotus, and it is the most early and best, of that species which has descended to modern times. He lived between the Persian invasion and the Peloponnesian war, about four hundred and forty years before the birth of Christ, and was the dawn of the illustrious age of his country.—From the time of his appearance to the expedition of Alexander the Great into Asia, (a period of less than one hundred and fifty years), were displayed all those conspicuous exertions of the genius of Greece, which all men of letters have hitherto admired, and all refined ages will continue to admire. The principal writers of this period were, Euripides, Sophocles, Thucydides, Isocrates, Xenophon, Plato, Aristotle, Demosthenes. Alexander the Great annihilated the liberty of Greece, and with it fled her spirit and her genius.

“After the Romans had overrun the greater part of Greece, they were tempted to turn their attention towards the precious remains of literature and arts which that country had to exhibit. But so unpolished still were this great people, that in the six hundred and seventh year of their city, scarcely a hundred years before the termination of the commonwealth, Lucius Mummius, a Roman consul, was

so imperfect a judge of the value of the exquisite statues and paintings which he found in the plunder of the city of Corinth, that he took an obligation of the shipmaster who was to convey them to Rome, to replace or repair them, if any of them were lost or injured in the voyage. His only conception of their use was to grace his triumph, and the number, not the workmanship, was to himself and his countrymen the chief object of attention.

“Before the age of Cicero, Rome had produced few writers of eminence, except Plautus and Terence, both of whom, particularly the latter, seem entitled to little other fame than that of translators from the Greeks. The pure period of Roman genius did not long surpass Cicero. It can scarcely be extended beyond the age of Livy, though several authors of great merit are to be found after that time. According, then, to this computation, the golden age of Roman genius did not much exceed one hundred years, and was somewhat shorter than that of Greece. The great ornaments of this period were, Lucretius, Cæsar, Cicero, Sallust, Tibullus, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Livy. The revolution of the civil government affected the genius of Rome, as it had done that of Greece, with a shock from which it never recovered. But the genius of Rome languished much longer than that of Greece before it expired. Of all antiquity, no two periods were so refined as those of Greece and Rome I have mentioned. At no other times was literary merit to obtain such high praise, or were great men to derive so much emulation and improvement from one another. No other ancient nations, not even the Greeks and Romans themselves,

were so high-minded, and so full of great views, in any other periods as they were in these.

“After the termination of the golden age of Rome, genius gradually subsides, and seems to descend into a state of torpor, if not total extinction, in the cells of monks, or to wander unregarded in the deserts of Arabia, till the restoration of civilization, learning, and arts, aided by the useful invention of printing, caused her revive with a large portion of her ancient lustre. For a term, therefore, of near two thousand years, from the first appearance of letters in Greece, to the invention of printing in the beginning of the fifteenth century, no more than two hundred and fifty years can be found, which were enlightened and adorned with the brightest displays of human genius; a demonstration either of the astonishing delicacy of literary merit, or of the slow and difficult steps by which society advances in knowledge and refinement.

“Printing has so corrected and dispersed the most valuable productions of ancient and modern times, that scarcely any revolution in human affairs can be supposed to introduce such ignorance and error as prevailed before it was invented. With the introduction of an art so auspicious to learning, genius and industry assumed new vigour, and redoubled their efforts. The spirit of the sixteenth century caught fire from the publication and perusal of the illustrious remains of Greece and Rome, and was distinguished by an acquaintance with their writers and language, which has not yet been equalled.

“The transition from the use of the Latin language, in which almost all the modern authors began to write after the revival of learning,

ing, and the hesitation under which literary men long remained, whether they should relinquish that language, and cultivate their own more imperfect languages, repressed considerably the efforts of modern genius. All men of letters regretted the labour and difficulty of writing in a dead language, and on topics which it often had not words to express. They felt also the disagreeable inconveniencies of having the knowledge of their labours confined to the learned, instead of diffusing useful or amusing information among all ranks of people, and of receiving that just and general applause which usually attends genuine merit. A few successful efforts gave conviction that modern languages were fully adequate to do justice to the conceptions of the most eminent authors; and it was found, that much less time and study were requisite to acquire an intimate acquaintance with any polished language of modern Europe, than to qualify an author for writing with elegance in the language of ancient Rome.

"The Italians appeared foremost in this new path of fame. Before the invention of printing, they possessed a considerable share of taste, perhaps from a communication with Constantinople, where learning subsisted till the middle of the fifteenth century, when that city was taken and plundered by the Turks: and they wrote their own language with wonderful propriety. Before the beginning of the seventeenth century, Petrarch, Dante, Boccaccio, Ariosto, displayed in their works an extent of knowledge, a richness of genius, and an elegance of language, which have scarcely yet been surpassed. Tasso, Guarini, Davila, and Machiavel, have not obscured the fame of these

writers. England followed the example of Italy, and in the end of the sixteenth century, and the beginning of the seventeenth, her best authors wrote her own language, with a purity and correctness which are not always to be found in the latter part of the seventeenth century, and which have not even in the eighteenth been very often exceeded. The works of Hooker, lord Bacon, Shakspeare, the Homilies and Prayer Book of the Church of England, not to mention the translation of the Bible, present a propriety of style which is not always found in Milton, Clarendon, or Tillotson, and scarcely in Dryden and lord Shaftsbury. The civil wars of England infected her language and her taste, with a degree of corruption which it required the merit of Pope, Addison, and Swift, to banish, and to re-establish former purity. The highly-finished productions of later times have not done much more than to regain primitive correctness.

"The French began last to polish their language, but their progress was very rapid. Before the middle of the seventeenth century, they could boast of few authors whom any reader would wish to peruse twice. Early in the eighteenth century, their language and their genius seem to have reached their highest eminence. Pascal commenced this career, and was quickly followed by Malebranche, Flechier, Corneille, Racine, Boileau, Fontenelle, Moliere. These authors retain the character of French classics: even the great names of Rousseau, Voltaire, and Raynal, have not aspired to higher praise than to share their fame.

"While the greater part of the learned men of modern Europe were

were pleased to write the language of ancient Rome, conscious of their inferiority on account of the disadvantages under which they laboured, they looked up to the ancients with the respect which scholars naturally entertain for their masters, and presumed not to rival them in the merits of execution and originality. But scarcely had the French begun to write their own language with a purity which attracted the attention of Europe, when their national ambition was excited; they claimed to be held originals themselves; both in respect of matter and style, and thus aspired to rival, if not to surpass, the merit of the ancients. Hence arose an extraordinary controversy, which commenced in France, concerning the comparative excellence of ancient and modern writers, and which was agitated with great keenness, and even asperity, at its first appearance. Many learned treatises were published, many bold assertions were advanced. Boileau and madame Dacier undertook the defence of the ancients, and asserted their right to superiority; Perrault and la Motte maintained the claims of the moderns. Much partiality, and abuse, and ignorance, as commonly happens in similar cases, were displayed in the course of the controversy, relative to the respective constituents of the parties.

“The dispute extended to England. The gentle, the humane, the indolent sir William Temple was roused to engage in it, and undertook the cause of the ancients, which he supported with much learning, discernment, and good taste. The sentiments, however, even of this able champion did not convey universal satisfaction; they were controverted, and attacked, by several obscure, but perti-

nacious writers among his countrymen. Society was pestered and tired with the dispute, till Swift exposed the whole of it to ridicule, by the irresistible vein of keen satire with which he has handled it, in his curious treatise on the battle of the books in St. James’s library.

“But though the violence, and mistakes, and misrepresentations of the first disputants have long ago subsided, yet so much solid foundation is the controversy accounted to have, that we very frequently meet it in conversation; and so much inclined are many readers to obtain information concerning it, as to afford considerable currency to a learned essay published by Mr. Dutens, a clergyman of the church of England. This author, in the course of other employments, had been obliged to consult most of the ancient writers of chief reputation, and he scruples not to affirm, that, in all compositions of genius and taste, their superiority is palpable and incontestable, and that vestiges are to be found in their writings of all the most brilliant discoveries in science and arts. This author is entitled to more consideration than any of his predecessors. He displays no malevolence, or inclination to misrepresent either of the parties; he never supposes the reader is to be satisfied with his authority or interpretation; he presents on his margin the passages on which he founds his opinion; and leaves every reader a fair field to decide for himself.

“In a controversy, then, which seems of importance sufficient to attract a little of our attention, we will endeavour to get possession of those principles by which a proper judgement must be supported. The neglect of this precaution has been the origin of much useless dis-

putation in all controversies, but particularly in the present. It is always to be remembered, that no fair comparison can be instituted between ancient and modern authors, except where circumstances are nearly similar. We will not be so unreasonable as to complain that our poets do not equal Homer, or our orators Demosthenes and Cicero, if the dissimilarity of their circumstances rendered it impossible. We will not expect that our poets and orators should equal or surpass those of antiquity in circumstances so unfavourable, that, had the poets and orators of antiquity been in them, they would not have surpassed our own. We will not demand that the ancient philosophers should have made the same progress in science which ours have done, when the latter have had the advantage of all the researches and experience of the former, besides the aid of several subsidiary arts and systems then unknown. Another principle entitled to attention is, that the inferiority of the moderns, or the superiority of the ancients, in different articles, is no reproach or compliment to the genius of either. There is no reason to conclude that vigour of genius is confined to one period of society more than another. It depends on external causes; let the same causes exist, and the same vigour will be displayed. Guided by these solid principles, let us now inquire a little what are the facts.

“That Homer must still bear away the palm of epic poetry from Virgil himself, and all the moderns, no candid critic will much hesitate to admit. He possesses more variety of character, more originality, more beautiful description, more elegance and simplicity of style,

than any other poet. But I will venture to maintain, that a great part of this excellence is to be imputed to the situation of the times in which he lived. The natural manners and magnanimity of those times were particularly favourable to the simplicity and sublimity of his sentiments and style. The high honours conferred on bards, being considered as the sages, the legislators, and the heralds of their age, as companions of kings, and guests at all festivals, would prompt the liveliest exertions of genius. He had all nature before him unoccupied, and all his pictures of her, at least to us, wear the merit and charm of novelty. Had either Virgil or Milton lived in the same circumstances, I doubt not that they would have rivalled him in other particulars, and have surpassed him in judgement and sublimity. They equal him in these qualities, notwithstanding the disadvantage of being obliged to imagine all the interesting situations of their heroes, without having ever seen or conversed with such men. Ossian derives his extraordinary merit from circumstances similar to those of Homer, from living and conversing with such men as those of whom he sung.

“Euripides and Sophocles are the only tragic poets of antiquity, for the Romans produced none entitled to notice; and considerable as their merit is in point of character, passion, and style, they seldom possess much excellence in point of fable. It was impossible that they should deserve much praise in this article, for they wrote too fast to acquire it.—Of the few plays of Sophocles which remain, scarcely any, except the *Œdipus Tyrannus*, can be said to have much fable; they are often little more than mere dialogues,

dialogues, and the actors go and come without much apparent reason. The taste of the Greeks in tragic representations could not be refined, when we reflect, that little more than thirty years before the time of Sophocles and Euripides, their theatrical exhibitions were no better than musical entertainments, exhibited by strollers equipped in the most homely manner. Thespis was manager of such a band, and Horace describes his cavalcade in the following words,

*‘Dicitur et Thespis vexisse poemata
plaustris.’*

“He had only one speaker, who was introduced to give the singers some respite. Æschylus succeeded him, and first presented dialogue, or exhibited something like a tragedy; he did not live above thirty years before Euripides and Sophocles. These poets may surpass modern tragedians in simplicity and propriety of style, but it requires an uncommon reverence for antiquity to prefer them in every other view.

“In comedy, every candid judge must give the preference to the moderns. The old comedy of the Greeks, in which living characters were introduced and ridiculed, though it might display boldness and spirit, was the coarsest, grossest ribaldry, that ever disgraced a stage. The object of it was not more reprehensible than the execution was indelicate. We cannot read, without the most lively feelings of disgust and contempt, the rough daubing of Aristophanes, by which the Athenians were instigated to put to death Socrates, one of the best men and worthiest citizens they ever had. The most worthless licentious farce ever appeared on the English stage, is not so opprobrious.

The new comedy, in which Menander and others excelled, and of which we may form some notion from the translations of Terence, though the originals are lost, was a much more perfect species of composition.—Simple, however, and natural and innocent as the dialogue is, it contains little wit or spirit, and less variety of character. Nearly the same characters recur in every play; and even the circumstances in which they appear are not much changed.

“Greece and Rome are unrivalled in oratory, but many circumstances concurred to produce that effect. I explained the chief of these in the history of eloquence. Had modern genius been placed in the same situation, I doubt not of its having made as eminent a figure.

“Historical composition is the field in which comparison can be made with most equity, because circumstances are most similar; and here it must be admitted, that the respective merits of candidates are so nearly balanced as to create some hesitation. In purity and correctness of style, liveliness of description, and candour of relation, no authors surpass Thucydides and Livy; but they must be admitted to be inferior to the best modern historians in forming an interesting and instructive narration. The capital secret of composing history, namely, to extend or abridge the narration according to the importance of the matter, seems little attended to by the former. By the use of it, and that most enlightened spirit of political and philosophical knowledge with which the latter have adorned their relations, they have communicated to them a degree of perfection for which we seek in vain among the ancients.

“In moral philosophy the merit of the ancients was considerable; but it was unfortunate that the Greeks did not apply very closely to the study of it, till the most illustrious age of their literature was past. Plato, indeed, has advanced many fine views of the subject, and adorned it with all the ornaments of a rich imagination. His example was followed by Xenophon in his *Memorabilia Socratis*, and both may be read with much emolument. But we see in them few principles or accurate delineations of the human mind; they either deviate into abstract reasonings, or content themselves with recommendations of particular virtues from considerations of utility. The schools of philosophy, especially those of the Stoics and Epicureans, which arose from the ruins of the schools of eloquence, generated controversies and maintained systems, rather than improved the science of the human mind. Mutual antipathies tempted both to push their doctrines to extremity, and to overlook the true science of nature situated between them.

“The Stoics considered man as a pure intelligence, and made little allowance for his possessing appetites and passions. They would scarcely permit him to feel that he was a man, and considered him unnaturally as independent of things about him. The Epicureans run to the opposite extreme. They held him forth as formed principally to consult his pleasure and his ease; and were not sufficiently assiduous to inculcate virtue as the means of obtaining both. Their system was hostile to all the manly and generous efforts of the soul, and contributed to sink its votaries into indolence or criminal gratification. We need not hesitate to pro-

nounce, that the doctrine of the human mind is now better understood than it was by either of these sects of philosophers.

“But it is in the mathematical sciences, and in the knowledge of the system of nature, that the superiority of modern attainments is most conspicuous. The ancients extended not their inquiries beyond the properties of lines of the second order, called Conic Sections; and it does not appear that they applied the science of these to any use. It was reserved for Newton to explain by their means, the laws which govern the motions of the planets. We are told that the Pythagoreans were acquainted with the Copernican system; but this acquaintance could hardly amount to more than conjecture, for they wanted every resource to proceed farther. They had no glasses with which to make observations, and their study of the heavenly bodies seems to have been directed rather to astrology than to astronomy. They might be admired by the ignorant inhabitants of Italy, among whom they lived; but their whimsical nostrums concerning abstinence from animal food, and the transmigration of souls, rather suggest the character of empirics in philosophy, than of enlightened and rational inquirers.

“Some people will conclude that Plato was acquainted with the circulation of the blood, which is supposed one of the most illustrious discoveries of modern medicine, because, in speaking of it, he employs the Greek word *περιγυρεται*, which signifies to be carried round. But if the use of figurative language is to be supposed a good argument for the knowledge of the ancients, there is scarcely any knowledge of which they may not be shown to be possessed. Had this doctrine

doctrine been understood by them, is it possible it should never be mentioned in terms explicit and full, that no reasonings should be founded on it, no causes of diseases deduced from it? In a word, to im-

prove our genius and our taste, we cannot read the ancients too much; but we must seek important additions to our knowledge, whether moral, political, or mathematical, among the moderns."

ON PERCEPTION.

[From Mr. SCOTT'S ELEMENTS OF INTELLECTUAL PHILOSOPHY.]

"WE have seen with how little success philosophers have invented theories, in order to throw light upon the process of sensation; and to trace the particular manner in which material objects convey impressions to our intellectual principle. They have not been less desirous to investigate the mode of action of perception; but as this faculty is of a still more intellectual and refined nature, it is not to be supposed that their hypotheses have been attended with very fortunate results. Such hypotheses, however, have been very prevalent from the remotest antiquity; and, contrary to the general course of such things, have preserved a considerable uniformity, and been implicitly admitted by succeeding philosophers as a rational basis of investigation. The consequence has been, a systematic diffusion of error in this branch of science, unparalleled in any other; so as at length to be matured into a complete system of scepticism, or disbelief. Those who wish to see the gradual progress of this sceptical philosophy completely developed, are referred to Dr. Reid's Second Essay on the Intellectual Powers. Our present plan requires only a brief statement of the leading opinions of philosophers concerning the operation of perception.

"The first philosopher, in whose writings we find a systematic theory concerning perception, is Aristotle. According to this theory, perception, as well as all the other operations of the mind, is carried on by the agency of certain images, forms, or species of material objects there present. The images presented to our senses were called sensible species, or forms; and were supposed to be continually sent off from material objects, in all directions; so that by entering at the avenue of the senses, they produced perception during the day, and dreaming during the night. These images were supposed to be again presented to the memory, or imagination, in a more refined state, when they were called species, simply; and when presented to the intellect in their most refined state of all, they were called phantasms; and it was maintained, that there can be no perception, memory, or intellection, without species, or phantasms.

"This theory was well adapted to the Peripatetic philosophy, which resolved all the phenomena of the material world into the effects of two principles, called *matter* and *form*. It does not, however, appear to have originated with Aristotle; for the followers of Democritus and Epicurus held a similar doctrine

with regard to slender films of subtle matter, which they supposed to come from external objects. It is likewise probable that the Pythagoreans and Platonists taught a similar theory of perception; as may be gathered from the hints which Plato gives in the seventh book of his Republic, concerning the manner in which we perceive the objects of sense; which he compares to the situation of persons in a deep and dark cave, who see not external objects themselves, but only their shadows, by a light let into the cave through a small opening.

“The principal difference among these sects, was concerning the origin of the objects of the human understanding. According to the Peripatetics, these must all enter originally by the senses, as sensible species, and are merely refined and rendered more spiritual by the intellectual faculties. This doctrine afterwards passed into the maxim, ‘*Nihil est in intellectu quod non fuit prius in sensu.*’ Plato, on the other hand, had a very mean opinion of all the knowledge we get by the senses. All science, according to him, must be employed about what he called *ideas*, which are the eternal and immutable patterns of things, which existed before the objects of sense themselves, and are not liable to any change. This doctrine nearly coincides with what the Pythagoreans taught concerning their numbers.

“The Peripatetic philosophy, as is well known, continued to prevail in the world during a period of several centuries; nor were its metaphysical doctrines successfully opposed till the time of Descartes. The theory of perception, above detailed, received a considerable modification from this philosopher.

He did not, however, totally reject it; for he held it as certain, that it is only a representative picture, form, or species of an object, that is present in the mind when we perceive, and not the object itself. But he denied that these forms, or species, are sent forth from external bodies; and shewed the absurdity of this doctrine by solid arguments. He also gave the name of *ideas* to the representative forms which he supposed to be present in the mind; a term which he seems to have borrowed from the philosophy of Plato. Another peculiarity in the Cartesian system, was the origin which it assigned to certain of our ideas, such as those of time, space, motion, &c.; which it represented to be innate, or coeval with the mind itself.

“The Cartesian theory of perception was variously modified by Malebranche, and other succeeding metaphysicians: but it is not necessary, here, to specify the peculiar notions of each. The writings of Mr. Locke are justly entitled to more consideration than those of any philosopher of the period in question. It does not appear that his opinions, concerning perception, differed materially from those of Descartes; except in respect of the origin which he assigned to the representative images, or ideas, as they now were universally named. In this respect he differed both from the Peripatetics and Cartesians; and assigned all our ideas, or notions, to two sources, viz. 1st, sensation; and, 2d, reflection or consciousness, as we have already had occasion to specify.

“It is an evident consequence of the doctrine of perception, as admitted by Descartes and Mr. Locke, that we have no direct evidence for the existence of external objects, or
of

of a material world ; since all the objects of our perception and consciousness are only ideas, or images, which have no dependence whatever upon external things. Both philosophers were too acute not to perceive this inference ; but neither were inclined to give up the existence of a material world, although we have found them, without reluctance, relinquishing the independent existence of the secondary qualities of body. The arguments, however, by which they endeavoured to establish the real existence of matter, are not very strong, and founded chiefly upon this position, that a benevolent Supreme power would never have given us faculties like the senses, merely in order to deceive us.

“ But although we find Descartes and Mr. Locke conceiving that the existence of a material world is only supported by probable arguments, we are scarcely prepared for a system so repugnant to common sense, as positively and seriously to deny the existence of any kind of matter whatever. Yet such was the system of the ingenious bishop Berkeley, who was considered as one of the most philosophical reasoners of his day. The denial of the existence of the secondary qualities of body, but as mere sensations of the mind, which we have seen formed a part of the systems of Descartes and Locke, no doubt prepared the way for this sceptical doctrine ; and it was not difficult to extend the arguments, by which the non-existence of the secondary qualities of body was supposed to be proved, to the primary also. These, according to the prevailing theory of perception, were mere ideas or images present in the mind ; and we know nothing of them but as ideas existing in the mind ; so

that of the existence of external bodies we have no evidence. Berkeley states his system as a thing very obvious, and readily to be admitted. ‘ Some truths there are,’ says he, ‘ so near and obvious to the mind, that a man need only open his eyes to see them. Such I take this important one to be, that all the choir of heaven, and furniture of earth,—in a word, all those bodies which compose the mighty frame of the world, have not any subsistence without a mind.’

“ Berkeley, though he denies the existence of a material world, yet, as became his cloth, decidedly espouses the existence of a world of spirits. In order to this, he admits that there are certain objects of human knowledge, which are not ideas, but things which have a permanent existence. These are our own minds, and their various operations, other finite minds, and the Supreme mind. And this he thinks must follow from the very nature of ideas, which, being inert, passive, unthinking beings, cannot be the images of thinking and active beings ; of those very beings in which they exist.

“ It was a large stride in scepticism to deny the existence of a material world : but the tenets soon after advanced by Mr. Hume, and grounded upon the same theory of our perceptions, go far beyond this, even to deny the existence of mind, as well as matter. This philosopher distinguishes the images, or pictures, which were supposed to be the objects of our thoughts, into two classes, which he calls impressions and ideas ; and comprehends under the first, all our sensations, passions, and emotions ; and, under the last, the fainter copies of these, when we remember, imagine, or reason concerning

cerning them. He sets out with this as a principle that needed no proof, (and of which, therefore, he offers none), that all the perceptions of the human mind resolve themselves into these impressions and ideas. This being granted, it was easy to shew, by the same process which Berkeley employed to prove the non-existence of matter, that there is neither matter nor mind in the universe; nothing but impressions and ideas. What we call a body, is only a bundle of sensations; and what we call the mind, is only a bundle of passions, thoughts, and emotions, without any subject: so that Mr. Hume does not leave us even a self to claim the property of these impressions and ideas.

“The system of Mr. Hume is not to be considered as a mere philosophical reverie, concerning the manner in which the operations of the mind are conducted; but as a highly dangerous and insidious attempt to overturn every principle of belief, and rule of conduct. For it admits no other standard by which our opinions and reasonings are to be guided, than those hypothetical impressions, or ideas, which we are to look for within ourselves. From this singular assumption, the author endeavours logically to deduce, that there is no such thing as power, or intelligence, in the universe; no active cause, or voluntary agent; no time or space, matter or mind: in fine, that there is no such thing as evidence, or even probability; nor any reason why we should believe one thing, more than its contrary.

“Philosophical scepticism had now arrived at its utmost limits; and it became time to assert the privilege of reason, and examine upon what foundation doctrines of

so preposterous and dangerous a tendency rested. Dr. Reid has unquestionably the merit of being the first who successfully executed this task; and in his various works on the human mind, he has so completely accomplished it, as to leave little more to succeeding writers than to select and illustrate his various arguments.

“On examining the ground upon which the modern sceptical system rests, it is found to be nothing more than the hypothesis which represents all our perceptions and thoughts as carried on by means of images or representations of the thing perceived or thought of, present in the mind; which images, in modern times, have generally been called *ideas*; an hypothesis which, we have seen, has descended from a very high antiquity, under various modifications. As this theory was taught by the Peripatetics, however erroneous in its assumptions, it led to no sceptical conclusions; because it taught that the images present in the mind were sent forth by material objects; and, consequently, still left us the evidence of our senses for the existence of matter. But Descartes and his followers, while they retained the supposition of images in the mind, rejected that of their proceeding from the external body. The consequence was, that they began first with doubting the existence of material substances, and at length deliberately denied that there is any such thing in the world as matter, or mind, or any sentient being. ‘It is pleasant,’ says Dr. Reid, ‘to observe, that while philosophers have so long been labouring, by means of ideas, to explain perception, and the other operations of the mind; those ideas have, by degrees, usurped the

the place of perception, object, and even of the mind itself, and have supplanted those very things they were brought to explain.'

"It might be reasonably concluded, that this theory, which has so long prevailed in the world, and been so implicitly admitted as to sanction conclusions apparently the most absurd, rendered our notion of perception, as well as the other intellectual faculties, very clear and intelligible. This, however, is by no means the case; for, if we apply the theory to any other of the senses, except sight, it is altogether incomprehensible. I can indeed understand what is meant by an image or representation of visible forms or colours, because, I know that such images are painted on the retina of the eye; and this fact seems to have afforded the origin of the whole hypothesis. But what is meant by the image or idea of a taste, of a smell, a sound, of sourness or sweetness, of loudness or lowness, of hardness or softness, I confess myself perfectly at a loss to determine. Much less can I pretend to understand what is meant by the images of intellectual objects, of truth or falsehood, fitness or unfitness, virtue or vice.

"Again, if we should ask, where are these images exhibited, and of what kind of materials are they formed? it would be difficult to obtain an answer from those who have most strenuously espoused the theory. It would seem, from the writings of Descartes, that he sometimes places the ideas of material objects in the brain, not only when they are perceived, but when they are remembered or imagined; but at other times he says, that we are not to conceive the images or traces in the brain to be perceived, as if there were eyes in the brain; these

traces being only occasions on which, by the laws of the union of soul and body, ideas are excited in the mind. Mr. Locke also seems to have wavered between these two opinions, sometimes representing the ideas of material things as being in the brain, but more frequently in the mind itself. Other philosophers, among whom we may rank Newton and Dr. Clarke, speak of the images of material things as being in that part of the brain called the *sensorium*, and perceived by the mind, there present: but Newton speaks of this point only incidentally, and, with his usual modesty, in the form of a query. As for Berkeley, his system leaves no brain on which the images could be traced; and the system of Mr. Hume leaves neither a brain nor a mind for the reception of his impressions and ideas.

"As to the particular nature or substance of the images, philosophers are generally silent. Mr. Locke indeed says, that our sensations are 'produced in us by different degrees and modes of motion in our animal spirits, variously agitated by external objects:' and again, that, by the faculties of memory and imagination, 'the mind has an ability, when it wills, to revive them again, and, as it were, to paint them anew upon itself, though some with more, some with less difficulty.' Dr. Robert Hook is almost the only author who is explicit on this subject. He informs us (Lect. on Light, sect. 7.) that ideas are completely material substances, and that the brain is furnished with a proper kind of matter for fabricating the ideas of each sense. The ideas of sight, he thinks, are formed of a kind of matter resembling the Bononian stone, or some kind of phosphorus; the

the ideas of sound, of some matter resembling the chords or glasses which take a sound from the vibration of the air; and so of the rest. Were this doctrine any thing like the truth, we might reasonably expect to obtain a view of these ideas by a careful dissection of the brain; which, however, has not yet been found to be the case.

“What then, it may be asked, can be the cause of the very general reception of an hypothesis which is replete with so many inconsistencies and difficulties, insomuch that it rather obscures than enlightens the doctrine which it is brought to explain? This seems to be ascribable to a prejudice which is deeply rooted in the human mind, and has even been admitted, from remote antiquity, as a philosophical axiom, or self-evident principle, namely, that ‘nothing can act, or be acted upon, but when and where it is present.’ It seems a necessary consequence, from this principle, that when the mind perceives, either the objects of its perception must come into it, or it must go out of the body to these objects. The first of these opinions has generally been adopted as the most rational. ‘We see,’ says Malebranche, ‘the sun, the stars, and an infinity of objects without us; and it is not at all likely that the soul sallies out of the body, and, as it were, takes a walk through the heavens to contemplate all these objects.’ Yet the author of the *Antient Metaphysics* has, among his other singularities, espoused this last opinion.

“The origin of this prejudice, that all action is the effect of contact, it is not difficult to assign. This is the only manner in which we ourselves can act upon external objects; and it is the manner in which all our external senses

are acted upon by these objects, either immediately, or by the intervention of some known medium, such as the rays of light, the undulations of the air, or the effluvia of odoriferous bodies. Yet, after all, when we come to examine the matter a little more nearly, we no more understand how bodies act upon one another when in contact, than when at a distance; and we should never have found out, independently of actual experience, that motion is the effect of contact or impulse. Nay, if the system of Boscovich be true, there is no such thing as real contact in nature, nor is such a thing possible. Again, there are many natural phenomena, such as those of gravitation, magnetism, electricity, &c. which appear to be produced by the mutual action of bodies at a distance from one another. For though we have various hypotheses of intervening media, ethers, or effluvia, which are intended to explain these phenomena, all these are mere suppositions, destitute of the least shadow of proof. The inference is, that the maxim above stated is to be ranked among those vulgar prejudices which, though very generally received, are without any real foundation in nature.

“If we seek for any other proof of the ideal theory, in the writings of those who have espoused it, than this generally received prejudice, we shall seek in vain. They all appear to assume the existence of ideas as a thing self-evident, and of which, therefore, no proof will be expected. ‘I presume,’ say Mr. Locke, ‘it will be granted me that there are such ideas in men’s minds; every man is conscious of them in himself, and men’s words and actions will satisfy him that they are in others.’—‘It is evident,’

he says again, 'the mind knows not things immediately, but only by the intervention of the ideas it has of them.' Berkeley, indeed, infers the reality of ideas from this circumstance, that magnitude and figure, as perceived by the eye, and as perceived by the touch, are things, in appearance, very different; and Mr. Hume employs a similar argument when he says, 'The table which we see, seems to diminish as we remove farther

from it; but the real table, which exists independent of us, suffers no alteration. It was, therefore, nothing but its image which was present to the mind.' But the known laws of optics are a sufficient answer to such reasonings, and prove, that tangible magnitude must assume the precise appearances to the eye which it is known to assume. There is, in truth, an image in such cases, but it is not in the mind, but in the retina of the eye."

THE ESTHER OF RACINE.

[FROM KOTZEBUE'S ANECDOTES AND MISCELLANIES.]

THE Esther of Racine was performed at the theatre of the Republic, for the benefit of madame Vestris. This celebrated piece was then very coldly received, therefore it is interesting to look back to the seventeenth century, and call to remembrance a certain evening when it threw the whole female world into the most violent emotion. It was the 3rd of February, 1689.—Racine, after his Phœdra had gained him so great a reputation, willingly gave up the theatre a prey to his rivals, and resolved to write no more for the stage. Pradon remained master of the field of battle, on which account Boileau said:

'Et la scène Française est en proie à Pradon.'

Racine had, from religious enthusiasm, already for twelve years given up the profane art of poetry; when suddenly, religious duty again put the lyre into his hand. Madame de Maintenon, who, above all things, was very attentive, that the young ladies who belonged to the convent of St. Cyr should re-

ceive a suitable education, once loudly lamented, that their lovely lips should be allowed to sing and declaim the most beautiful verses, because they all treated of profane subjects. She asked Racine, if it was not possible to unite poetry, music, and piety together? Racine found her ideas very edifying, but also very troublesome to himself. Willingly would he have resigned the honour of perfecting them to another. 'He had not for twelve years made a single rhyme—what would his enemies say? and if, now, even the common fate of mankind should happen to him?—if his fame should be extinguished on the spiritual stage, after it had shone so brilliantly on the worldly one?'—Yet he could not absolutely refuse madame de Maintenon; for, with all his piety, he was still a courtier. Boileau, whose advice he asked, decided positively for the negative. 'Reflect,' said the latter, 'that you have a great reputation at stake, the preservation of which is more difficult than the attainment.' After long considering for and against,

against, Racine at last came to a determination; the story of Esther presented itself, and all doubts fortunately vanished. It was not long before he carried to madame de Maintenon not only the plan of his piece, (for he was accustomed to sketch scene by scene in prose,) but the first act completely finished. She was enraptured with it, and, in spite of her great modesty, she could not help discovering in the character of Esther, and in some other trifling circumstances, very flattering compliments to herself. Even Vashti and Haman were striking portraits. As this bible piece was perfectly proper for the ladies of St. Cyr, so was the first representation got up with zeal; but only the principal courtiers, who accompanied Louis the XIVth to the chace, were allowed to be present. At supper the king could talk of nothing but Esther. Monseigneur, Monsieur, and all the princes would see it; the applause was uncommon, Esther's prayer was irresistible; all appeared great, excellently treated, worked up with dignity; even the great Condé wept.—The third representation was dedicated to the pious, viz. to the Pere de la Chaise, some bishops, twelve or sixteen jesuits, together with madame de Miriamon, and her most elevated nuns. 'To-day,' (said madame de Maintenon,) 'it shall only be played to the saints.' The saints applauded as highly as the children of the world, and heartily wished, that all tragedies resembled Esther.—In the end the king allowed all his courtiers to take a share in it; as was natural, they were in raptures. Madame de Maintenon was tormented on all sides for tickets of admission; there were more than two thousand applicants, and only two hundred

places. The king generally made a list, as he was on the road to Marli. For he went in first, with the list in one hand, and an uplifted Spanish cane in the other; thus he himself guarded the entrance, until the chosen number were assembled.—It was also a very comic circumstance, that the young lovely actresses prayed their *Veni Creator* behind the curtain, to interest the Holy Ghost in their several parts. As the king and queen of England now expressed a wish to see Esther, it was got up with redoubled splendour, the actresses were decorated with diamonds, the orchestra consisted of the first musicians belonging to the king. Madame de Montespan and Louvois knew themselves under the name of Vashti and Haman, bit their lips and clapped. Their English majesties were delighted, that the minister, who had promoted their removal from the throne, should be represented as dazzled and deceived by hell. Louis the XIVth, who, perhaps, had piety to thank for his great reputation, who at the sametime was a little tyrannical, willingly knew himself in the pride of a Persian monarch, in his love for justice, as in the tenderness of his Esther. In short, every body was satisfied. Racine wished to dedicate his work to madame de Maintenon; but she entreated him not once to mention her name in the preface. Two-and-thirty years afterwards, the players, for the first time, brought Esther on the public stage, and it had only one representation; probably because only the pure and innocent actresses of St. Cyr, with their angel voices, knew how to give a certain high interest to a play, which, as Voltaire says, represents an improbable, not an attractive incident: a foolish king,

king, who lived six months with his wife without knowing who she was, who, without the least pretence, ordered a whole nation to be slaughtered, and afterwards, even as mad-

ly hung up his favourite.—The cold reception that Esther again experienced in Paris in our days, appears to confirm the judgement of Voltaire."

On Good Ton.

(From the same.)

"ALL nature eternally struggles after a kind of unity, and from the intermixture of things arise new things; as once the Romans, after a dreadful fire, out of many melted metals drew the Corinthian bronze, which was valued as highly as gold. The same can almost be said of the good ton of the clubs, resources, copinos, and by what other names the assembling places are called where men form the different classes, meet together; where there arises a kind of friction of every sort of mind and breeding, which also produces a new mind and breeding, a kind of middle ton, that passes better to the whole, than the ton of every single coterie would have done, before it was modified in this way.

"This property is what has been agreed to be called *good ton*, in whatever town it may reign, may it be Paris, London, or Querfurt; the name is nothing to the purpose; the thing remains the same for the whole physical and moral world. It cannot absolutely be said, that the best *possible ton* is the ton of France, (at least not now,) or Italy, England, Germany, &c. &c. but that it is the most agreeable to each of these countries. Even as little can magistrates or soldiers, priests or men of letters, artists or men of elegant minds pretend to it; but the ton that the nearest accords with

all these stations is the best. Good company, in which it should reign, is, as it were, the store-house of a free disinterested commerce, in which every well-educated man takes a share, and where people only yield to each other, to be in the highest degree themselves distinguished. To be introduced into company no offence should be given to another; to please, it requires something more, still more to be distinguished; because in that case ambition raises emulation, and the emulation is more difficult to be gained over, than to be conquered.

"But a preliminary article in all society is, that it must be understood. Every coterie has, as before said, its own language, that without its limits is not understood.

"This consequently must be avoided; for if a man will not talk so that all may understand him, it is an open usurpation on the equality before mentioned, and the exchange of words and thoughts has no longer liberty nor pleasantness. All words of art, science, scholastic or juridical expressions, are banished from good company; they must be translated or paraphrased, otherwise in the end conversation would be a kind of pick-nick, to which every one brought a dish, but so placed it, that none of the fellow-guests could come at it. Much better would it be to eat alone.

"Every

“ Every seaman endeavours to make his best way to his port. In the open sea that certainly is invisible, the path is not traced out, but he reckons, estimates, makes observations, takes the northern latitude, sails courageously on, and fortunately reaches his destination. Even so it is with society. It has, like the sea, its storms, its currents, rocks, ebbs, floods, variableness, and faithfulness.

“ On the question: is there a tribunal for good ton? *yes* and *no* may be answered; it holds its sittings *ever* and *never*; it assembles *every where* and *no where*; it consists of every body and nobody; it is called man. This short word man means the public, as if all its voices were formed into one.

“ Amongst the decriers of politeness, for it has them, there are people who suppose, that a man must be coarse to be free-minded. From fear, it may be believed there are polite deceivers, who deceive rather downrightly. Politeness certainly also deceives, but it pleases, and conceals from man, that which in his eyes is a horrible monster to man himself, *egotism*. These are the real enemies of society, the opposition party, that from the first have crossed every thing good, and have never been tired of destroying the best which man with united powers could found. Alas, all is *egotism*, even passion and reason, even integrity is only a *modest*, and virtue a moderated *egotism*. Politeness, it is true, can neither make it modest nor moderate it, but it veils it up, puts a mask before it, is the general mediatrix between every kind of pride. Benevolence and modesty will certainly never be imitated from her; but when she borrows language, features, organs, from virtue, she even then some-

times overcomes vice, as gilding protects from verdigrise. Through her alone, people of good ton are every where distinguished; who ever busy themselves with others, seldom with themselves, ever appear to acknowledge a superiority in others, and failings in themselves, in ton and manner, as it were appropriated to the other. So is politeness, as it were an *uniformity* of the mind with the body, which nature gives to no one, but company to every one.—The good ton is a middle ton between all tons, as beauty is a middle mould between all moulds. The perfection of both consists therein, that they are equally distant from the extremes. The most beautiful bodily form, for example, is in no country the fattest or leanest, neither the dropsy nor the consumption; so also is neither the best ton too familiar nor too ceremonious. Also in both lies (beauty and *bon ton*) something real and something conventional. Custom, manners, *tourneurs* change in every country, often in every town. The greatest beauty is that form which best agrees with the views of nature, but in detail, the opinions and tastes of people may always be different, and a Chinese may look upon the Germans as very ugly. So few as there are notes in music for false tones, as little can a man in company be accused of faults; these are against the good ton. Man can, as he every where does, sin by too much or too little, through ignorance as through pretension. But the first can only be reckoned singly, the second doubly. Too much elegance is, for the most part, more striking than too much simplicity. We forgive much sooner those who do not equal us, than those who will be better. A young man

man must also rather even fear to be otherwise, than wish to be better. Emulation is excellent in all that requires labour, industry, trouble, exertion: but, as it has been already observed, conversation requires neither pains nor exertions; it is for repose; it is no war, scarcely guard parade. Woe to the soldiers, who, to distinguish themselves, would fall out of their ranks! In company we must agree; to do which, it is necessary to spare, more particularly self-love, which is, of all things, the most irritable in us, that constantly intermixes with every thing that surrounds us, and never pardons those that it finds greater. Reason may for ever preach; no one ever acknowledges that they are in the wrong. The lowest place that perhaps we ever take, is the place of equality. Therefore my lord, and my lady, or honourable miss, have all possible preference for themselves before us; but they are pleased not to let it glimmer, otherwise,—no society. They are richer than we! Away with supercilious pomp, otherwise—no society. They are handsomer than we; yet they do not every moment look into the glass, otherwise—no society. They are more learned than we, but they do not suffer us constantly to feel our ignorance, otherwise—once again, no society.—The intercourse with the world must be free, without expence, man barter nothing against nothing; grace, ease, facility, compliance, are the first merits. Nothing should be prepared, the opportunity gives the subject of conversation, caprice dictates the laws. We dispute for and against, about a pin; we dread logic more than folly; a thousand subjects are rather treated of superficially than one fundamentally. A new law-

1806.

book, or a new fashion, a voyage round the world, or a walk in a park, are then of equal importance. Thus now was once the world, in which we live, to cultivate which a man must please. Be what you will, stand as high as you please, you must come down, otherwise society will banish you. A perfect man could not once pass in company, for even perfection displeases, when it is not in its place; even so, as a great gentleman of seventeen would displease in a crowd of sportive children when he would display his school wisdom, or a profoundly learned pedant amongst young ladies, talking of new fashions. It would so happen to him, as if Milo of Crotona with his club was to come amongst a *plump sack* party.

“A carriage once broke down on a stony road, not far from the small and poor town of Gondrecourt. It must be repaired; the workmen were but few; it would take a considerable time. There was no resource against *ennui*, the few honourables of the place were in the country. The traveller discovered at a distance, a prettily situated neat house, with a modest steeple. It was a little convent of Capuchins. He went up to it and rung the bell. The door was opened to him, the inhabitants beheld a tolerably lean, sickly appearing man, but who was very well dressed, and who, courteously entertained for their hospitality. The Capuchins had but little, but they gave what they had. After the first general compliments, this and that were spoken of; the traveller heard much, but said little. Questions were asked him, his answers were reasonable. The hora sounded.—‘Will the gentleman also say his Angelus here?’—‘My reverend fathers, I would even beg-

P
your

your permission to that effect.'— Upon which followed dinner, but yet somewhat better than usual, plain wholesome food, for the guest appeared feeble. During dinner the conversation arose on theology: (that is, the philosophy of the Capuchins.) The stranger was almost as well acquainted therewith as the fathers themselves, and was always of their opinion. They spoke of different convents of Capuchins in France, Germany, and Italy, which to these good people were the proper capitals of the world. The stranger in the part of geography was much better instructed than he could have been expected to be. A feature of the humility of St. Francis of Assissi was related; the stranger admired it, and related some others, which were even unknown to the fathers themselves. They became interested for the courteous stranger. So modest a man with such an excellent education! a man who could talk on every thing, and who cer-

tainly had a good study! for he even understood a couple of Latin quotations almost as well as the father guardian! a man who appeared to be acquainted with every thing that interested their order, &c. It went so far that they wished to receive him into their order, and gave him hopes one day of attaining its highest dignities. The stranger was enraptured at the honour—he would consider of it—believed himself unworthy—but did not refuse it, only put it off. The carriage was at last ready. They separated with the real tokens of respect and devotion. Now guess who could this man be, who knows how so soon to win the hearts of the Capuchins!—It was VOLTAIRE.—Alas, will this long remain the only example of its kind? In France especially, there are no longer either Voltaire or Capuchins; and should, at any time, one of these kinds return again, it will be very difficult to be a Voltaire."

ORIGIN OF ROMANTIC FABLING IN IRELAND.

[From Mr. PRESTON's Communication in the TRANSACTIONS of the ROYAL IRISH ACADEMY, Vol. X.

"**T**O trace the origin of romantic fabling, in modern Europe, would be a curious, and, perhaps, not a fruitless enquiry. In proportion as the literary treasures of the East shall be opened and displayed, the means of acquiring information, on this interesting subject, will, probably, be increased. It would seem, that the magicians, knights, and damsels, with which Fairy-land is peopled, owed their birth, to the

warm fancy of the Oriental romance-writers. Through what channels, the fictions of the East found their way into Europe, may be conjectured, but cannot be positively determined. To the time of the Crusades, their introduction is generally referred. I think, however, that the commercial intercourse, which formerly subsisted, between the Levant, and some of the principal Italian states, opened a channel, equally wide, and

and certainly more secure. The tumultuous crowd, that rushed to the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre, had not, probably, either leisure or inclination for mental gratifications. In the acquisition of spoils, they seem to have rather exercised their prowess, than their taste. But, we will not weary ourselves with conjecture, in regard to the medium, through which those fictions flowed into Europe; it is enough, for our present purpose, that we not only find them there, during the middle ages, but can trace them, in some of the popular romances of that period. Ariosto supplies us with an instance in point. The story of Schariar and his brother, in the Arabian Nights Entertainments, evidently appears to have laid the foundation for the well-known tale of Astolpho and Jocundo, in canto xxviii. of the Orlando Furioso. I am, I will confess, inclined to consider Italy, as the great emporium of the fictions under consideration. And as the monks of that delightful region, as well as those of France, occasionally relaxed from their severer studies, in excursions to Fairy-land, the Oriental fictions might, through their means, have spread to the neighbouring countries. Some of the early romances, as well as the legends of saints, were undoubtedly fabricated, in the deep silence of the cloister. Both frequently sprung from the warmth of fancy, which religious seclusion is so well calculated to nourish; but the former were adorned with foreign embellishments.

“While the see of Rome was fostering, with anxious solicitude, the Catholic church in Ireland, missionaries were occasionally sent, from the several monastic foundations on the continent, to regulate

the ritual; and, at the same time, to invigorate superstition, by furnishing fresh supplies of holy legends. Amongst these, it may be presumed, some of the profane romances, fabricated in the continental cloisters, were introduced (perhaps we might say smuggled) into this country. And, as the brilliant fictions of the East were the elements, of which those romances were chiefly composed, they thus obtained a footing in Ireland, and furnished materials for the metrical tales of our early bards. To the stock of materials thus supplied, were, probably, added many Moorish and Arabian fables, and Spanish Historias de Cavalierias, which might have found their way to the western coast of this island, by means of the commercial intercourse, which subsisted so early, and so long, between Spain and Galway.

“‘A very gallant gentleman, of the North of Ireland,’ (says sir William Temple), ‘has told me, of his own experience, that, in his wolf-huntings there, when he used to be abroad in the mountains three or four days together, and lay very ill a-nights, so as he could not well sleep, they would bring him one of the tale-tellers, that, when he lay down, would begin a story of a king, or a gyant, a dwarf, and a damsel, and such rambling stuff; and continue it all night long, in such an even tone, that you heard it going on whenever you awaked.’ Now, as giants, dwarfs, and damsels, are topics, in which the Eastern romances are very conversant, we can be at no loss to discover the source, whence they flowed into Ireland, though we cannot determine, with certainty, the medium through which they passed. But I shall now proceed

to adduce a few instances, in support of my hypothesis.

“The similitude, between the pathetic Irish tale of Conloch, and the story of Rustam, as related by the Persian poet, Ferdusi, in his heroic poem, entitled *Shah Nameh*, is almost too strong to admit of its being supposed accidental. ‘Ferdusi relates,’ (I borrow the words of the ingenious sir William Ouseley,) ‘that, after a sumptuous feast, and magnificent entertainment, given, in honour of Rustam, by the king of Sitemgam, to which wine and music contributed all their charms, a couch or bed being carefully prepared for the Persian hero, (Rustam,) he retired to rest; and, after a short time, was astonished at the appearance of a lovely damsel, who advanced from behind the curtains and hangings.’ After a glowing description of the personal charms of the damsel, and a relation of the particulars of her conversation, with the hero, sir William proceeds. ‘Of this mysterious interview, and the subsequent union of our hero with the princess, the result was a son, whom the king, her father, educated, after Rustam’s departure, and called by the name of *Sohraûb*. The youth, having learned from his mother, the strange circumstances of his birth, and of Rustam’s fame, resolved to set out, in quest of adventures, and immediately commenced a series of brave and gallant actions. But being so unfortunate, as to encounter his own father, each ignorant of his relation to the other, the issue of the combat proved fatal to *Sohraûb*; who did not, however, expire, until it was discovered that he fell by a parent’s hand. The circumstances attending this discovery, the dying words, and filial affection, of the

ill-fated youth, and the father’s vehement affliction and distress, afford the poet, Ferdusi, a fine subject, for many interesting and beautiful passages.’

“Of the Irish tale, I shall now give the outlines, illustrated with extracts, from the very elegant and spirited version of miss Brooke. Conloch, ‘haughty, bold, and brave.’

‘Came to visit Erin’s coast;
Came to prove her mighty host!’

“Finding the Finian chiefs assembled, on some particular occasion, he hurls defiance at them, and

‘While he spoke, collecting all his
might,
Fierce he address his conquering arms to
fight;
No stop, no stay, his furious faulchion
found,
Till his dire hand an hundred warriors
bound:
Vanquish’d, they sunk beneath his dreadful
sway,
And low on earth their bleeding glories
lay.’

“A messenger is then dispatched for Cucullin. He arrives, and challenges Conloch to single combat; but first requests he will

‘To him his purpose and his name
confide,
And what his lineage and his land de-
clare.’

“To this requisition, Conloch gives an unwilling refusal. He knows he is about to raise his arm against a parent; but his honour, as a knight, will not allow him to decline the combat, or declare his name.

‘Reluctant, then, the chiefs commenc’d
the fight,
Till glowing honor rous’d their slumber-
ing might!
Dire was the strife each valiant arm
maintain’d,
And undecided long their fates remain’d;

For,

For, till that hour, no eye had ever
view'd

A field so fought, a conquest so pursu'd!
At length Cucullin's kindling soul arose;
Indignant shame recruited fury lends;
With fatal aim his glittering lance he
throws,

And low on earth the dying youth ex-
tends.'

"Conloch, feeling the approach
of death, addresses Cucullin, in the
following pathetic terms:

'Approach!—(the wounded youth re-
ply'd,)—

Yet,—yet more closely nigh!
On this dear earth,—by that dear side,
O let me die!—

'Thy hand, — my father, — hapless
chief!—

And you, ye warriors of our isle, draw
near,

The anguish of my soul to hear,
For I must kill a father's heart with
grief.'

"As this passage (a passage not
inferior, perhaps, to any of those
passages in the Shah Nameh, allud-
ed to by sir William Ouseley) ex-
hibits a fine subject for the pencil,
I shall submit it to the contempla-
tion of the academy; while I pro-
ceed to the relation of another
Irish tale, which bears evident
marks of an Oriental origin. The
tale in question is entitled, Moira
Borb; of which also miss Brooke
has given a translation.

"While the Finian chiefs range
carelessly along the banks of the
fierce Mac-bovar, or river Erne,
which, in its fall, near Ballyshan-
non, occasions the celebrated sal-
mon-leap, they are surprised, by
the appearance of a lovely damsel,
in an enchanted bark. The dam-
sel lands, and is courteously receiv-
ed by the chiefs; who, observing
her trembling apprehensions, en-
quire into the cause. She relates
her story:

'O! I am follow'd o'er the rolling wave!
O! mighty Finn! thy trembling sup-
pliant save!

The son of Sora's king with wrath pur-
sues,

The chief of spears, whose arm the host
subdues!'

"While she speaks, a mighty
warrior appears, riding over the
waves, upon a magic steed. Reach-
ing the shore, he rushes forward,
and seizes the trembling damsel.
A combat ensues, between him and
the Finian chiefs, in which he falls;
and, immediately after, receives
sepulchral honours. The maid
continues in the camp. Miss Brooke
concludes, from the following pas-
sage in the poem, that the story
does not end here.

'Woe to the champions of that lovely
dame!

Woe to the land, to which her beauty
came!

"On these lines, she observes, in
a note, 'It is probable that this
passage alludes to some subsequent
consequences of the death of Moira-
borb.' It may, therefore, be pre-
sumed, that the heroine of this
poem was, like the Armida of
Tasso, a deceitful damsel, whose
object was, to seduce some of the
Finian chiefs from their duty; and
destroy or enervate them, by fe-
male wiles, and the power of en-
chantment. Indeed, I am inclined
to think, that the Italian and the
Irish bards drew the materials, of
which their respective tales are
composed, from the same source.
The similitude is certainly striking.
That Tasso never saw the Irish
tale, is highly probable; and, if
he had seen it, he undoubtedly
could not have read it; yet, it may
be presumed, it was written before
he was born. Miss Brooke, on the
presumptive evidence of the lan-
guage, refers it to the middle
ages. If, therefore, it supplied
Tasso with a foundation for his
beautiful episode of Armida, he

must have found it in some other language ; and, perhaps, under some other form. Without meaning, however, to insist on the probability of my conjecture, I shall exhibit a few parallel passages, from the two poems, and leave the reader to decide.

‘ All’ apparir della beltà novella
Nasce un bisbiglio, e’l guardo ogn’un
v’intende ;

Siccome là, dove cometa, o stella
Non più vista di giorno in ciel risplende :
E traggom tutti per veder chi sia
Sì bella pellegrina, e chi l’invia.

‘ Argo non mai, non vide Cipro, lo
Delo
D’abito, o di beltà forme sì care.

‘ Her matchless charms the wond’ring
bands surprize,
Provoke their whispers, and attract their
eyes ;

So mortals, through the midnight fields of
air,

Observe the blaze of some unusual star.
Sudden they throng to view th’ approach-
ing dame,

Eager to learn her message, and her
name.

Not Argos, Cyprus, or the Delian
coast, &c. HOOLE.

‘ And, oh, to tell the charms her form
array’d !

The winning sweetness that her face dis-
play’d !

On her alone we could or think or gaze,
And our rapt souls were lost in sweet
amaze. MOIRA-BORB.

‘ Stassi l’ avaro sguardo in sè raccolto,
E i tesori d’ Amore, e i suoi nasconde.

‘ Declin’d on earth, her modest look de-
nies,

To shew the starry lustre of her eyes.
HOOLE.

‘ Deck’d by soft love, with sweet attrac-
tive grace,

And all the charms of mind-illumin’d
face ;

Before our host the beauteous stranger
bow’d,

And, thrown to earth, her eyes their
glories shroud. MOIRA-BORB.

‘ Donna,

• • • • •
• • • • •
• • • • •

Che da te si ricerca ? e donde viensi ?

Qual tua ventura, o nostra, or qui ti
mena ?

‘ Say, damsel !—

What fortune bids thee to our camp
repair ?

What fortune sends to us a form so fair ?

What art thou ? HOOLE.

‘ Soft mariner ! (the son of Cumhal cry’d,)

What chance has torn thee from protec-
tion’s side ?

Why com’st thou here, and from what
happy earth ?

And whose the noble race that gave thee
birth ? MOIRA-BORB.

‘ Il tuo lodar troppo alto sale ;

Nè tanto insuso il merto nostro arriva.

Cosa vedi, signor, non pur mortale,

Ma già morta ai diletti, al duol sol viva.

Mia sciagura mi spinge in loco tale,

Vergine pellegrina, e fuggitiva.

Ricorro al pio Goffredo, e in lui confido :

Tal va di sua bontate intorno il grido.

‘ Too far thy praise extends, (she made
reply,)

My merits ne’er attain’d a flight so high.

Thy eyes, O chief ! a mortal wretch
survey,

To pleasure dead, to grief a living prey !

Unhappy fate my footsteps hither led,

A fugitive forlorn, a wand’ring maid !

Godfrey I seek, on him my hopes depend,

Oppression’s scourge, and injur’d virtue’s
friend. HOOLE.

‘ Truth, O great chief ! my artless story
frames :

A mighty king my filial duty claims.

But princely birth no safety could be-
stow ;

And, royal as I am, I fly from woe.

‘ Long have I look’d that mighty arm to
see,

Which is alone of force to set me free ;

To Erin’s far fam’d chief for aid I fly,

And on that aid my trembling hopes
rely. MOIRA-BORB.

“ But I shall not multiply quo-
tations. Unwilling to trespass too
long on the patience of the acade-
my, I shall adduce but a single in-
stance more, in support of my po-
sition. The story of the ring, as
related by Trissino, in the Italia
Liberatà, and by the author of the
Irish poem of the Chase, seem to
bear so close an affinity to each
other,

other, that, it may be presumed, they were raised upon the same foundation. But that foundation lies, and will, probably, ever lie, 'hid in night.' In both tales, we may discover the colouring of magic, with which the Saracens of the middle ages, then adepts in chemistry, tinctured all the fables, which sprung from their brilliant and creative imaginations.

"Belisarius, having ordered out a detachment of his army, to watch the motions of the enemy, the warriors are met, at the entrance of the camp, by

'Una donzella

Tanto leggiadra, e graziosa in vista,
Ch' arebbe accesa ogni gelata mente:
Ben' era piena di fallaci inganni.'

"This damsel, who appears 'sconcolata e mesta,' says, sighing, to the admiring chiefs,

'Voi mi parete cavalieri eccelsi,
Di gran valore, e di pietade adorni:
Però prendo ardimento di pregarvi,
Che m' ajutate in questo mio bisogno.
Io fui figliuola già d' una gran donna,
Signora del paese di Bitonte,
Che maritommi al duca di Crotone,
E diedemi per dote un solo anello
Di pregio estremo, e di valore immenso:
Questo avea tal virtù, che s' io il basciava,
E poi toccava ogni qualunque cosa,
Quella si convertiva in seta, o in oro,
O in tutto quel, ch' i' avea dentr' al pensiero.

Or' io tornando al dolce mio terreno,
Per rivedere i miei, con questo anello,
Ch' io nol lasciava mai da me lontano;
Passai vicina ad una bella fonte;
E veduta, ch' io l' ebbi, ivi discesi
Per bere, e l' anel presi, e lo basciai,
Volendo farmi un' ottima bevanda:
Ma mentre che volea toccar con esso
L' acqua del fonte, e trarmi ivi la sete,
Mi sopravvenne un cavalier armato
Con dui giganti; e con orribil voce
Sì mi sgridaro, ch' io lasciai l' anello
Cadermi per timor nella fontana:
Poi quei crudeli mi tiraro indietro,
Nè vollar più, ch' io, m' appressasse ad
essa;

Ond' io, per non lasciar sì ricca gioja,
Quì mi rimasi, e vo cercando ajuto;

E s' alcun mi sarà tanto cortese,
Ch' atterri il cavaliere, ond' io racquisti
La mia sì cara, e prezioso gemma;
I' sarò più di lui, che di me stessa.'

"Yielding to her requisition, the chiefs attend her to the lake or fountain, where they find an armed knight, the son of an enchantress, ready to receive them. They engage in combat with him. They are vanquished, and led away prisoners to the palace of the enchantress, under the guard of the two giants mentioned by the artful damsel. It is not necessary, for our present purpose, to relate the adventures which followed; I shall only observe, that the waters of the fountain, into which the damsel pretended she had dropped her ring, were endued with miraculous powers.

'Chiunque beve

Di sì dolce acqua, tutto si risana;
Onde è detta la fonte del Sanajo.'

"Let us now turn to the Irish tale.

"During a feast, given in the hall of Almhain to the Finian chiefs, Finn steals from the festive board 'to breathe the fragrant gale.' An enchanted doe suddenly appears before him. He calls his dogs, and pursues her to Slieve-Guillin, where she instantly vanishes. Finn, then looking around, discovers, near a small lake,

'A weeping fair,
Upon a bank reclin'd,
In whose fine form, and graceful air,
Was every charm combin'd.'

"The chief approaches the fair mourner, and addresses her,

'Hast thou, sweet maid! of golden hair!
Beheld my hounds in chase?'

"She replies,
'Thy chase, O king, was not my care;
I nothing of it know;

Far other thoughts my bosom share,
The thoughts, alas, of woe!

* * *

‘Alas, my ring, for whose dear sake
These ceaseless tears I shed,
Fell from my finger, in the lake,
(The soft-hair’d virgin said.)

‘Let me conjure thee, generous king!
Compassionate as brave,
Find for me now my beauteous ring,
That fell beneath the wave.’

“The tale proceeds:

‘Scarce was the soft entreaty made,
Her treasure to redeem,
When his fair form he disarray’d,
And plung’d into the stream.

‘At the white-handed fair’s request,
Five times the lake he try’d;
On ev’ry side his search address’d,
Till he the ring descry’d.

‘But when he sought the blooming maid
Her treasure to restore;
His powers were gone,—he scarce could
wade
To reach the distant shore!

‘That form, where strength and beauty
met,
To conquer or engage,
Paid premature, its mournful debt,
To grey and palsied age.’

“Finn is soon afterwards found
by his chiefs, in the state described
by the poet. They draw the
enchantress from a cave, in which
she had concealed herself, and
oblige her, by threats, to disen-
chant their leader. She presents
him with a medicated cup. He
drinks, and immediately

‘His former grace,
His former powers return’d;
Again with beauty glow’d his face,
His breast with valour burn’d.’

“I shall now conclude. I have
not the vanity to think, that I have
established my hypothesis; but, I
flatter myself, I have thrown out
a hint, which may lead to a curious
and interesting investigation by
some abler hand.”

HISTORY of MONA, or the ISLAND of ANGLESEY.

[From Sir RICHARD HOARE’S TRANSLATION of Archbishop BALDWIN’S
ITINERARY.]

“**M**ONA or Anglesey—This
island, once the principal
seat of the Druids, and the last
asylum to which the distressed
Britons fled for succour from the
victorious Romans; the residence
of the British princes, and the
stronghold of their expiring armies;
contains many interesting monu-
ments of the highest antiquity, and
coeval with its ancient inhabitants,
the Druids. Though a large vo-
lume has been dedicated to this lit-
tle island, yet its parochial and
antiquarian history has not been
so fully developed as the traveller

could either wish or have expected,
from so able, learned, and inge-
nious a writer as Mr. Rowlands.

“Its sovereignty appears to have
been both frequently and sturdily
contested for above four centuries,
and was the scene on which the last
and decisive battle was fought be-
tween the Welsh and English; and
although prince Llewelyn here
witnessed the total overthrow of
his rival king Edward the First, and
the discomfiture of his army, with
the loss of many of its most illus-
trious knights and chieftains; yet
fortune, on this occasion, seems
only

only to have glimmered for a moment in his favour, for in the ensuing year he was betrayed, and lost his life near Builth in Brecknock.

“ The first mention made of this island in the Welsh Chronicle, is in the year 808, when its possession was disputed by Conan Tindaethwy, and Howel, sons of Roderic Molwynoc: victory decided in favour of the latter, who retained possession of it till the year 817, when it was taken from him by his brother Conan.

“ A. D. 818. In the reign of Mervyn Fych and Esylht, the only daughter of the late Conan, Egbert king of the West Saxons entered Wales with a great army, and destroyed the whole country unto Snowdon hills; and about the same time, there was a sore battle fought in Anglesey, called the battle of Lhanvaes.

“ About the year 843, at the commencement of the reign of Roderic the Great, Ethelwulph king of the Saxons united his forces with Burchred king of Mercia, and entering North Wales with a great power, destroyed Anglesey, and fought diverse battles with the Welsh.

“ A. D. 873. The Danes having made peace with king Alfred, and according to the words of the Welsh Chronicle, ‘having abjured England,’ bent their force against Wales, and entered Anglesey with a large army, where Roderic the Great gave them two battles; one at a place called Bangole, and another at a place called Menegid.

“ In the year 876, the English entered the island, and fought a sore battle with the Welsh.

“ A. D. 900. Igmond, with a great number of soldiers, came to Anglesey, and the Welshmen gave them battle at Molerain.

“ About the year 915, the men of Dublin destroyed the island.

“ The modern edition of the Welsh Chronicle records a battle fought in Anglesey betwixt Howel Dha and Conan ap Edward Foel, wherein the latter fell.

“ A. D. 958. Abloic king of Ireland landed in Môn, and having burnt Holyhead, spoiled the country of Lhyn; and in the year 966, Aberfraw, the royal seat of the princes of North Wales, was destroyed by the Irishmen. In the year 969, Mactus, the son of Harold, entered Anglesey with an army of Danes, and spoiled Penmon, and shortly afterwards Godfryd, the son of Harold, did subdue to himself the whole isle of Anglesey, which he enjoyed not long.

“ A. D. 979. At this time, Custenyn Dhu, that is, Constantine the Black, son to Iago (who was then prisoner), hired Godfryd, the son of Harold, with his Danes, against his cousin, and they both together destroyed Anglesey and Lhyn; whereupon Howel ap Jevaf gathered his army, and setting upon them at a place called Gwayth Hirbarth, overthrew them, and Constantine was slain; but in the year 986, Godfryd entered Anglesey a third time, and having taken Llywarch, the son of Owen, prisoner, together with two thousand men, he cruelly put out his eyes. In 989, the Danes taking advantage of Meredyth’s absence in South Wales, landed in Anglesey, and ravaged the whole island.

“ A. D. 1073. Gruffyth, son to Conan ap Iago, the rightful inheritor of the principality of North Wales, came over from Ireland with the succour which his brethren Encumalhon king of Ulster had delivered him, and he landed in Anglesey,

Anglesey, and brought it to his subjection.

" In 1096, the island was attacked by Hugh de Mountgomery earl of Arundel and Shrewsbury, and by Hugh earl of Chester, the former of whom was killed by Magnus, as related by Giraldus in the text of this chapter.

" The island seems to have enjoyed a long period of tranquillity till the year 1151, when Cadwalader, the brother of Owen Gwynedh prince of North Wales escaped out of prison, and subdued part of the isle to himself; but his brother Owen sent an army against him, and chased him thence. In the year 1157, during the war between king Henry the Second and the Welsh, the navy of Owen Gwynedh, under the command of Madoc ap Meredith prince of Powys, anchored off Anglesey, and put on land some soldiers, who spoiled two churches, and a little of the country thereabouts; but as they returned to their ships, the whole strength of the isle set upon them, and killed them all, so that none of those which robbed within the isle brought tidings how they sped.

" A. D. 1174. About this time, David ap Owen Gwynedh, prince of North Wales, made war against his brother Maelgon, who was in possession of the isle of Anglesey, and brought his people over Menai (for so that arm of the sea is called that separateth the island from the main land), and forcing his brother to fly to Ireland, brought all Anglesey to his subjection.

" A. D. 1193. Roderic, the son of Owen Gwynedh, by the help of Gothrike king of Man, entered Anglesey and conquered it; but before the end of the same year, the sons of his brother Conan drove him out of the island and got it themselves.

" In the year 1237, the death of Joan, daughter of king John, is thus recorded in the Welsh Chronicle. " The next spring died Joan, daughter to king John, princess of Wales, and was buried upon the sea shore within the isle of Anglesey, at Lhanvaes, as her pleasure was, where her husband (prince Llewelyn ap Jorwerth) did build a house of bare-foot friars over her grave.

" A. D. 1245. King Henry III. having failed in his military expedition against North Wales, and having lost a great number of his most worthy soldiers and nobility, sent for the Irishmen, who landed in Anglesey, and spoiled a great part thereof, till the inhabitants gathered themselves together, and, meeting with them heavily laden with spoil, drove them back to their ships.

" A. D. 1277. Prince Llewelyn was at length obliged to sue for peace, which king Edward I. granted, upon the following hard conditions: 'That he should pay to the king, for his favour and goodwill, 50,000 marks; that the cantref Ros, where the king's castle of Teganwy stood; the cantref Ryvonioc, where Denbigh is; the cantref Tegengl, where Ruthlan standeth, and cantref Dyffryn Clywd, where Ruthyn is, should remain to the king and his heirs for ever, and that the prince should pay yearly for the isle of Anglesey, 1000 marks, which payment should begin at Michaelmas next ensuing, and that he should also pay 5000 marks out of hand, and if the prince died without issue, the island should revert to the king and his heirs. The prince was also required to come to England every Christmas to do homage to the king for his lands.'

" The historian Carte has recorded

ed the following anecdote on this occasion. ‘The barons of Snowdon, with other noblemen of the most considerable families in Wales, had attended Llewelyn to London, when he came thither at Christmas A. D. 1277, to do homage to king Edward; and bringing, according to their usual custom, large retinues with them, were quartered in Islington and the neighbouring villages. These places did not afford milk enough for such numerous trains; they liked neither wine nor the ale of London, and though plentifully entertained, were much displeased at a new manner of living which did not suit their taste, nor perhaps their constitutions. They were still more offended at the crowds of people that flocked about them when they stirred abroad, staring at them as if they had been monsters, and laughing at their uncouth garb and appearance: they were so enraged on this occasion, that they engaged privately in an association to rebel on the first opportunity, and resolved to die in their own country rather than ever come again to London, as subjects, to be held in such derision; and when they returned home, they communicated their resentments to their compatriots, who made it the common cause of their country.’

“In the year 1281, the Welsh, with Llewelyn and his brother David at their head, took up arms again; and Edward being now convinced that he could place no dependance upon them, as long as they had a prince to lead them, resolved to make an entire conquest of the country. He sent an army by sea to Anglesey, which they won, and slew such as resisted them, but the chief men adhered faithfully to the king, according to the oath they

had taken at the last peace. Then they came over against Bangor, where the arm of the sea called Menai is the narrowest, at a place called Moel y don, and there made a bridge of boats and planks over the water, on the same spot where Julius Agricola had done the like, when he subdued the isle to the Romans. This bridge being accomplished, so that threescore men might well pass over in a front, William Latimer, with a great number of his best soldiers, and Luke de Thany with his Gascons and Spaniards (who were in the king’s service), passed over the bridge, and there saw no stir of enemies: but as soon as the sea began to flow, down came the Welshmen from the hills, and set upon them fiercely, and either slew or chased them to the sea to drown themselves; for the water was so high, that they could not attain the bridge, saving William Latimer only, whose horse carried him to the bridge, and so he escaped. But the death of Llewelyn in the same year, and the cruel execution of his brother David in the ensuing one, effectually checked the rebellious spirit of the Welsh, and secured to Edward the undisputed sovereignty of the principality.

“This island, which in modern days deserves the epithets applied to it by Giraldus in this chapter, once bore a very different appearance. When attacked by the Roman general Suetonius, the sacred woods of the Druids were levelled to the ground: ‘Præsidium impositum victis, excisique luci, sævis superstitionibus sacri.’ At a much later period we find it well provided with trees, for in the year 1102 the Welsh Chronicle says, ‘that Magnus landed in Anglesey, and hewed down as much timber

timber wood as was needful for him.' Dreary as its outward aspect may seem to the traveller, it still contains many interesting objects of attention; it is particularly rich in Druidical remains, the finest specimen of which is to be seen in the park of lord Uxbridge, at Plâs Newydd. The Paris mountains deserve the notice of the artist as well as the mineralogist; for the majestic grandeur and effect of their excavations cannot be surpassed; neither should the stately and well preserved castle at Beaumaris be overlooked, though inferior in point of situation to its rival brothers at Conwy and Caernarvon. The parish church is a handsome Gothic building, and contains some monuments worthy of notice: the most remarkable is that of a knight in armour recumbent, with a female by his side, well sculptured in alabaster; his head rests upon a helmet, and at his feet is a lion: the female is habited in a long robe richly ornamented round the neck; the hands of which are uplifted. Various small figures dressed like knights and monks decorate the pedestal of this tomb, which is said to have been brought from the religious house at Lhanvaes, at the time of its dissolution, but the personages whom it was designed to represent have not been ascertained. It now stands before the altar, with the feet of the figures placed towards it. On the right hand side of the altar is a large tablet inserted in the wall, bearing the following devices and inscriptions: the tablet is of an oblong form; at each corner near the top are two escutcheons, encircled with the motto of *Honi soit qui mal y pense*; under the one on the left is this inscription: *Henricus Sydney ordinis garterii, miles præsi-*

dens ex consiliis marchii Walliæ, dominus deputatus in Hibernia.—Under the other, *Antonius Sentleger ordinis garterii, miles, quondam deputatus in Hibernia*; round a circle in the centre, *Gulielmus Tbwaytes armiger*; and beneath it in a straight line, *Obiit 20 die Januarii 1565.* At the lower corners are also two escutcheons: the one on the left has this motto, *Franciscus Agard ex consiliis Hiberniæ*; the other on the right, *Edwardus Waterbous me posuit*; and at the bottom is this inscription, *Nosce teipsum—fide et taciturnitate*—I could not learn that any historical account was extant of this singular monument, nor on what occasion it was placed in Beaumaris church. Neither could that indefatigable traveller, Mr. Penant, gain any positive information about it.

“Henry Sydney, in the second and third of Philip and Mary, was made general governor of all the king’s and queen’s revenues, within the realm of Ireland, and about two years afterwards, lord justice thereof. In the second of queen Elizabeth he was appointed lord president of the marches of Wales, and four years after was made knight of the garter. In 1568 he was constituted deputy of Ireland. He died at the bishop’s palace in Worcester, A. D. 1586, and was conveyed from thence to his house at Penshurst in Kent, where he was most honorably interred. He was however previously embowelled: his entrails were buried in the dean’s chapel in the cathedral church at Worcester; and his heart was brought to Ludlow, and deposited in the same tomb with his dear beloved daughter Ambrosia, within the little oratory which he had made in the same collegiate parish church. The historian Hollinshed

has

has left a long and elaborate character of this celebrated personage; from whom also I have been able to collect some information respecting two of the other persons mentioned in the tablet. The historian says, that at each several time he was sent deputy into Ireland, he was furnished with a new secretary. The first was master Edward Waterhouse, now knighted, and one of his majesty's council in Ireland. The same author adds, 'He made special choice of two worthy counsellors, whom for their faithfulness in counsel for the state, good will and friendship towards him, and for their integrity and sincerity every way, he entirely loved and

assuredly trusted; one of these was master Francis Agard, whom he commonly called his 'fidus Achaetes.'

"Sir Anthony St. Leger was lord deputy of Ireland in the year 1539. He was succeeded first by sir James Crofts, and afterwards by Fitz-Walter, earl of Sussex. When sir Henry Sidney was recalled to this high office, sir Anthony St. Leger was appointed as his coadjutor, and stationed in Munster with the title of lord president of that province. I can gain no biographical information respecting Gulielmus Thwaytes, the æra of whose death is recorded on this tablet."

HISTORY of the ORDER of BARDS.

[From the Same.]

"THE Bards or reciters of songs made so very conspicuous a figure in the history of this country, that some account of their institution and proceedings will not, I hope, be deemed uninteresting; for we must not consider their songs as mere poetical compositions, but as the primary sources of much historical and authentic information. Neither were they compiled hastily from fabulous records and vague traditions; but were composed after recent exploits, and immediately copied and dispersed amongst those who had either been actors or eye-witnesses to the deeds they commemorated.

"The Bardi were held in high estimation in Germany, and particularly amongst the nation of the Belgæ. 'Sunt illis hæc quoque carmina, quorum relatu, quem Barditum vocant, accendunt animos, futuræque pugnæ fortunam

ipso cantu augurantur.' 'Apud omnes tres passim nationes eximio in honore sunt Bardi, Vates, Druidæ. Bardi quidem laudationibus rebusque poeticis student.'

"By their songs they animated the troops to battle, and recorded the names and heroic deeds of those who fell in the field of glory. The poet Lucan thus addresses them:

'Vos quoque qui fortes animas belloque
peremtas,
Laudibus in longum vates dimittis in ævum,
Plurima securi fudistis carmina Bardi.

'You too, ye Bards, whom sacred raptures fire,
To chaunt your heroes to your country's lyre,
Who consecrate in your immortal strain,
Brave patriot souls in righteous battle slain;
Securely now the tuneful task renew,
And noblest themes in deathless songs pursue.'

"The

“The earliest mention I can find made of the Bards in Wales, is in the reign of the British king Cadwalader, who died at Rome A. D. 688; and of whom the following anecdote is recorded. This king presided at an Eisteddvod, or meeting assembled for the purpose of regulating the Bardic institution; when a minstrel appeared, and played upon his harp before this illustrious assembly in so displeasing and unharmonious a key, that he was ordered, under severe penalties, whenever he again performed before persons skilled in the art, to adopt that of Mwynen Gwynedd, or the pleasing melody of North Wales.

“During the reign of the great Welsh legislator Howel Dha, A. D. 940, we find that the Bards were held in high estimation, and enjoyed great and peculiar privileges. Y Bardd Teulu, or the *Musicus Aulicus*, (corresponding with our poet laureat) received on his appointment, from the king, a harp, and a gold ring from the queen; which harp he was to part with on no consideration whatever.

“He held his land free, and at the three great festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, he sat at the prince's table. If the Bard desired any favor of the king, he was obliged to play one of his own compositions; if of a nobleman, three; and if of a plebeian, he was under the obligation of playing till he went to bed, or was tired with his music. His person was held so sacred, that whoever slightly injured the Bard, was fined vi cows, and cxx pence; and the murderer of a Bard was fined cxxvi cows. He preceded the army, when prepared for battle, reciting an ancient song called Un-

benæth Prydain, or the Monarchal song of Britain, and for this service received his share of the enemy's spoils.

“About the year 1070, Bleddyn ab Cynvyn prince of Powys (the author of another code of Welsh laws) established some regulations respecting the Bards, revising and enforcing those which were already made.

“After the death of Trahaearn ab Caradoc in 1079, Gruffydd ab Cynan succeeded to the principality of North Wales. During his long and glorious reign of fifty-six years, he reformed the disordered behaviour of the Welsh minstrels, by a very good statute, which is extant to this day. The annotator on the Welsh Chronicle records the following particulars respecting the Bards.

“There are three sorts of minstrels in Wales.

“The first sort named Beirdh, which are makers of song, and odes of sundrie measures, wherein not one lie great skill and cunning is required, but also a certeine naturall inclination and gift, which in Latine is termed *furor poeticus*. These do also keepe records of gentlemens armes and petegrees, and are best esteemed and accounted of among them.

“The second sort of them are plaiers upon instruments, chiefelie the harpe and the crowth, whose musike for the most part came to Wales with the said Gruffyth ap Conan, who being on the one side an Irishman by his mother, and grandmother, and also borne in Ireland, brought over with him out of that countrie divers cunning musicians into Wales, who derived in a manner all the instrumentall musike that is now there used, as appeereth as well by the bookes written of the same,

same, as also by the names of the tunes and measures used amongst them to this daie.

“The third sort called Arcaneaid are those which do sing to the instrument plaied by another, and these be in use in the countrie of Wales to this daie.

“This statute or decree before mentioned doth not onelie prescribe and appoint what reward everie of the said minstrels ought to have, and at whose hands; but also of what honest behaviour and conversation they ought to be, to wit, no make-bates, no vagabonds, no ale-house hunters, no drunkards, no brallers, no whore-hunters, no theeves, nor companions of such. In which things if they offend, everie man by the said statute is made an officer, and authorized to arrest and punish them, yea and take from them all that they have about them. They are also in the same statute forbidden to enter into anie mans house, or to make anie song of anie man without speciall licence of the partie himselfe. And this statute or decree hath beene oftentimes allowed by publike authoritie of the cheefe magistrats of that countrie, as appeareth by sundrie commissions directed to divers gentlemen in that behalfe.

“The character of king Edward the first has been blackened by the imputation of the greatest cruelty towards the Bards; for after the final subjugation of Wales, he is said to have issued an edict for their extermination, on the false plea of exciting their countrymen to sedition, by the recital of the heroic deeds performed by their ancestors. This idea has been generally adopted both by poets and historians; but perhaps without good foundation. The historian Carte says ‘that the only set of men who had reason to

complain of Edward’s severity, were the Bards, who used to put those remains of the ancient Britons in mind of the valiant deeds of their ancestors. *He ordered them all to be hanged*, as inciters of the people to sedition. Politics in this point got the better of the king’s natural lenity; and those who were afterwards entrusted with the government of the country, following his example, the profession, becoming dangerous, gradually declined, and in a little time, that sort of men was utterly destroyed.’

“Sir John Wynne in his history of the Gwedir family, following the same opinion, says, ‘Edward the first, who caused our *Bards all to be hanged* by martial law, as stirrers of the people to sedition, whose example being followed by the governors of Wales, until Henry the fourth his time, was the utter destruction of that sort of men. Since thence this kind of people were at some further libertie to sing and keep pedegrees as in ancient time they were wont; since which we have some light of antiquitie by their songes and writings. From the reigne of Edward the first to Henry the fourth, there is therefore noe certainty, or very little, of things done; other than what is to be found in the prince’s records, which now, by tossinge the same from the Exchequer at Caernarvon to the Tower, and to the offices in the Exchequer at London, as alsoe by ill-keeping and ordering of late dayes, are become a chaos of confusion with a total neglect of method and order as would be needful for him who would be ascertained of the truth of things done from time to time.’

“Mr. Pennant, in his tour through North Wales, informs us, that in the 15th Henry VIII. an Eisteddfod

fod was held at Caerwys, Flintshire, in which the ancient laws respecting the Bards were confirmed. And he further adds, that A. D. 1568, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, a royal commission was issued for holding an Eisteddfod at the same place; on which occasion several Bards received their degrees. This commission is the last of the kind which has been granted, and is still in the possession of the Mostyn family, together with the silver harp, which, from time immemorial, had been in their gift to bestow on the chief of the faculty.— This badge of honour is about five or six inches long, and furnished with strings equal to the number of the Muses. See Pennant, vol. i. p. 463; where a copy of the commission, and an engraving of the harp are given.

“Such is the information which I have been able to collect from written authorities respecting this celebrated order of men in Wales. The following notes, drawn up by Mr. William Owen, at my request, will enable me to enter more fully, and, I trust, satisfactorily, into this subject.

“BARDS.—What we find to have been most prominent in the religion, laws, and manners of the patriarchal ages, and in that part of the world which has been generally deemed the cradle of the human race, namely, the western regions of Asia, prevailed likewise among the distant colonies of Britain.

“Were we inconsiderately to pronounce the early inhabitants of this island to have been in a savage state, according to the common acceptance of the term, it would be contrary to the tenor of a multitude of historical facts. But this is the character generally drawn of the Druids, and of the religion they

practised among the Cymry. Such a picture is so contrary to the evidence we are enabled to collect from the monuments which they have left behind them, and even to the few notices taken of them by the Greek and Roman writers, that I think it useless to enter into a detail of things so much misrepresented. The common observation that the whole people were overawed by the terror of priestcraft, is foolish; for every nation is governed by the influence of its religion: and we have no evidence of any particular abuse of this power amongst the ancient Britons.

“In considering their state of religion and society, the first object that arrests the attention is the system of the Bards; the principles of which are clearly identified among the first patriarchs of mankind, and were extended to the farthest regions of India, in common with the western borders of Europe; and the agreement of systems in these two extreme regions is astonishing, as might be illustrated by numerous facts; such as the exact identity of character of the Indian Menw, and the Menw of the British Triads and romantic tales.

“One of the most striking peculiarities of the bardic system was the invention of an *oral record*; more certain than the art of writing itself, especially as it existed in its infancy, or perhaps at any other period before the discovery of printing. For the Bards required that every branch of knowledge embraced by them should be committed to memory; and this their disciples were obliged to do before they could be fully initiated into the order; and with a view of rendering them perfect therein, nothing that appertained to the institution, was allowed to be committed to writing,

writing. What they thus taught was reduced into a peculiar kind of aphorisms, called *Triades*, from their comprehending three different articles classed together according to the characteristic analogy subsisting between them; and these *Triades* embraced the leading points of theology, morality, science, and history.

“Solemn meetings were held at certain seasons of the year, such as at the new and full moon, but more particularly at the solstices and equinoxes the four principal meetings of the year took place, for the promulgation of the maxims of the Bardic religion, and for other purposes. But there were other superior triennial meetings, which were great national assemblies, wherein were ratified such things as were proposed for their oral record.

“These conventions of every description took place within circles of unhewn stones, in the most public and convenient situations, such as in the open plains in the county of Wilts, whereon the principal stone circle of the whole island was raised, and of which Avebury and Silbury-hill present, at this day, to our observation some of its vast and wonderful remains.

“The institution consisted of three orders: the Bards proper, the Druids, and the Ovates; and to each of these were attached peculiar pursuits and functions.

“The order called the Bardic was the predominant class, or that into which all the disciples were initiated in the first instance; it was, in short, the privileged national college of the Britons, for on being admitted into it, the members assumed one or the other of the three classes, as their inclination or interest directed them. To this primary

order appertained the perpetuation of the privileges and customs of the system, and also of the civil and moral institutes and learning. If a Bard assumed the character of a Druid, he had to perform the functions of the priesthood; and as there was a priest or Druid in every community, and the greatest influence was attached to him, this was the class into which the greatest number of the Bards were necessarily entered. Therefore, owing to the power belonging to this character, the Bards appeared more conspicuous to strangers in the Druidical character, than when they officiated in the others; so that the accounts we find in ancient writers, who describe them, are often contradictory, but generally the names of the other orders are lost in that of the Druids.

“The Ovates were such of the Bards as cultivated particular arts or sciences: therefore it was the order to which belonged artists and mechanics of every description. And this was the only character in which the Bards were permitted to hold private meetings; in performing the functions of the other classes, they were obliged to assemble, as they expressed it, in the eye of light, and in the face of the sun. I have not the least doubt, from the information I have obtained, but that this class of craftsmen was the origin of free masonry; for in times of persecution, the Bards found it too dangerous to hold public meetings: they therefore assumed the *ovate* character, which permitted them to meet under cover; and indeed many of the very terms, arrangements, and principles of Masonry are to be found in Bardism. So that Masonry is Bardism in disguise; being so involved in technical terms that it requires great ap-

plication in those who are initiated, to see through the mysterious covering. The Bards too have a secret like the Masons, by which they can know one another. The three letters O. I. W., are with them the unutterable name of the Deity: they therefore made use of another term known only to themselves, just as the Jews, who always make use of *Adonai* when the name of Jehovah occurs. Each of the letters in the Bardic name is also a name of itself: the first is the word when uttered, that the world burst into existence; the second is the word, the sound of which continues, by which all things remain in existence; and the third is that by which the consummation of all things will be in happiness, or the state of renovated intellect, for ever approaching to the immediate presence of the Deity.

“Each of these three orders wore an appropriate dress. That of the primary order, or the Bards in general, was of sky-blue, emblematic of light, or truth, and of peace. White, as a mark of purity and holiness, was appropriated to the Druids. The *Ovates* wore green, thus denominating that the earth was the object of their pursuits.

“The fundamental object and principle of the Bardic system were, the search after truth, and a right adherence to justice and peace. They never bore arms, nor engaged in any party disputes; so that eventually they became totally exempted from all political connections; and they were therefore employed as heralds in war between different powers. So sacred were their persons considered, in the office of mediators, that they passed unmolested through hostile countries, and even appeared in the midst of bat-

tle, to arrest the arm of slaughter, while they executed their missions. But this state of disinterested virtue was at length the means of procuring to the order the supreme influence in the nation, by the perversion of its original principles; as we find to have been the case amongst the Gauls, where the office of Archdruid was established and made permanent, in direct violation of those principles; and this high-priest had acquired so great an ascendancy as to struggle successfully against the Roman power for nearly five hundred years.

“Their idea with respect to the moral government of the world was, that life was gradually increasing in perfection; that therefore truth and justice were advancing therewith; so that the Bards looked for a period when those attributes should predominate over the principles of evil and devastation; that when that period arrived, man would begin to make rapid approaches towards that perfection which his state was capable of undergoing; and then, on the consummation of such an event, the design of this terrestrial world was answered, and it would be changed into another state by fire.

“The theology of the Bards was shortly this: they believed in the existence of one Supreme Being, of whom they reasoned, that he could not be material, and that, what was not matter, must be God. The soul was considered to be a lapsed intelligence; and the punishment it was susceptible of, was a total privation of knowledge; and the possession of that knowledge was deemed essentially to imply happiness. To effect this punishment, and destruction of evil, the soul was cast into *Anoon*, the extremity of which was the lowest point

point of existence; and to regain its former state, it must pass through all the intermediate modes of existence. For such a purpose, they say, God created this as well as other innumerable worlds; that is, for the progression of intelligences through all modes of being, approximating eternally towards himself. Further, that this earth was originally covered with water, which gradually subsiding, land animals appeared, but of the lowest and least perfect species; and thus corresponding in organization with the then capacity of the soul. New orders in the scale of being were successively produced from these, whose frames and intellects improved through many ages: thus also augmenting the store of knowledge, or happiness; so that ultimately man appeared the most perfect receptacle of the soul on this earth. For this was a state wherein the soul had so augmented its faculties or knowledge, as to be capable of judging between good and evil; consequently it was a state of liberty and of choice. If the soul became attached to evil, it fell again to brutal life, or state of necessity, to a point corresponding with its turpitude of human existence; and it again transmigrated towards the state of man, for a renewed probation.—When the soul became attached to good; death was its release from the human to a higher sphere of existence, where the loss of memory was done away; so that it then recollected the æconomy of every inferior mode of existence; thus being made happy in the knowledge of all animated nature below its then condition, it became elevated higher and higher in the scale of intelligence to eternity, and consequently increased in knowledge and happiness.

“Such was the original system of the Bards; but like all other systems of theology, it was corrupted and abused: the rank weeds of superstition were sown for the sake of power, and they grew luxuriantly in a field originally cultivated to yield more wholesome fruit.

“Amongst the first aberrations, may be traced that of the knowledge of the great *Huon*, or the Supreme Being, which was obscured in the hieroglyphics or emblems of his different attributes, so that the grovelling minds of the multitude often sought not beyond those representations, for the objects of worship and adoration. This opened an inlet for numerous errors more minute; and many superstitions became attached to their periodical solemnities, and more particularly to their rejoicing fires, on the appearance of vegetation in spring, and on the completion of harvest in autumn. Others of less note grew into importance, from the peculiarity of some ceremonies; such as cutting the mistletoe with a golden hook by the presiding Druid; the gathering of the cowslip, and other plants consecrated to the power of healing. The autumnal fire is still kindled in North Wales, being on the eve of the first day of November, and is attended by many ceremonies; such as running through the fire and smoke, each casting a stone into the fire, and all running off at the conclusion to escape from the black short-tailed sow; then supping upon parsnips, nuts, and apples; catching up an apple suspended by a string with the mouth alone, and the same by an apple in a tub of water: each throwing a nut into the fire; and those that burn bright, betoken prosperity to the owners through the following year, but those that

burn black and crackle, denote misfortune. On the following morning the stones are searched for in the fire, and if any be missing, they betide ill to those who threw them in.

“The authority assumed by the Bards of excommunication during the purity of the system, was an useful corrective in their discipline: but when the civil government became in a degree coalesced with the order, the sentence pronounced in the circle was clothed in all the terrors that surround an outlaw in modern times. Then too, their doctrine of expiation by sacrifice extended to more awful victims, for all the criminals (among whom captives taken in war were often considered the most guilty) were collected together at the great yearly assemblies; and there, in atoning for their offences, presented a spectacle to the whole nation at once impressive and tremendous.

“In tracing the origin of the Bardic system, we are led back to very remote antiquity. The first who made verse the vehicle of instruction and of record, according to the Triads, was Tydain Tâd Awén, or Tydain father of the Muse, between whom and Taaut, Thoth, or Hermes of the Ægyptians, there is a striking conformity as well in the names as in their attributes. From this original were derived the privileges and peculiar customs, which were arranged and methodized by the three primæval Bards, Plennydd, Alon and Gwron, and then sanctioned and adopted as a part of the constitution of the nation, and which before only received through courtesy what afterwards was insured by law. The Triads differ as to the period when this took place, whether in the time of Prydain son of Aedd the Great, or of Dyvnwal Moelmud

his son. The exact æra of all these personages is lost in antiquity; but it is curious to observe that the Alon here mentioned, seems to be the same with Olen the Hyperborean, Ailinus or Linus in the Græcian mythology. It may be pertinent here to notice another Triad, wherein it is said, that Gwyddon Ganhebon was the first who composed verse; that Hu the Mighty was the first who made it the vehicle of record and instruction: and that Tydain Tâd Awen was the first who reduced it to an art, and fixed rules of composition; and hence originated Bards and Bardism, and the regulation of the system in all its privileges, by the three primæval Bards, Plennydd, Alon and Gwron. The Gwyddon Ganhebon above mentioned, seems according to another Triad, to have achieved a work that is to be identified with the pillars of Hermes in Egypt; for this Triad mentions three great exploits, one of them being ‘The stones of Gwyddon Ganhebon, upon which were to be read all the arts and sciences in the world.’

“It does not appear that the Bards had any mythological fables. They had Triads, and other kinds of aphorisms, containing their political, moral, religious, and other maxims and branches of knowledge, which it was necessary that every disciple should learn by heart, before he could gain admission into the order. Of these things as many are still preserved as would take up a long time for a person of common capacity to acquire.

“Whatever superstitions might have originally belonged to the system, must in a great measure, or perhaps totally have been expunged by the introduction of Christianity. In other respects, I believe that the system is still preserved as to the general principles within a small

small district of Glamorganshire ; whilst it has become nearly unknown in every other part of Wales for several ages. This appears more particularly from a celebrated Eisteddvod or congress held at Carmarthen, about the year 1450, against which the synod of the Bards of Glamorgan protested, as being totally subversive of the ancient institutions as preserved by them. This congress at Carmarthen and those subsequently held in North Wales, were scarcely any thing more than the simple meetings of poets and minstrels under a few common and indispensable regulations for the sake of good order ; and therefore not worthy of particular notice.

“The chair of Glamorgan being the only one that preserved the ancient Bardic institutes ; it is of consequence to bring it more particularly to the notice of the public : for without it, we should have probably nothing left of Bardism or Druidism except in scattered ruins, of which nothing satisfactorily could now be made out.

“This provincial chair or Gorsedd has regularly preserved the ancient discipline, and has occasionally held public meetings to give effect to the functions of the Bards belonging to it. Some of these

meetings were expressly convened at the desire of the Lords Marchers and other powerful families, who were desirous of learning something of this extraordinary system, which was so formed, as to have within itself the means of self-preservation under all the great changes of the nation. And to satisfy the wishes of those noble personages, several of the most intelligent Bards of the times were appointed to collect together and digest every particular relating to the order. Of the congresses convoked by such authorities, the first was under the patronage of sir Richard Neville ; a subsequent one was held under the auspices of William Herbert, earl of Pembroke, at Cardiff castle, in 1570 ; another in 1580, under the direction of sir Edward Lewis, of the Van ; and the last for such special purpose was held at Bewpyr castle in 1681, under the authority of sir Richard Basset.

“The result of these meetings was entered into books, which were revised in the last mentioned congress, and of which manuscript copies are still extant ; and the original register of the last meeting is in the possession of Mr. Turberville of Llan Haran in Glamorganshire.”

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

OBSERVATIONS ON REFLECTING TELESCOPES, their METALLIC COMPOSITION, and the MANNER of CASTING them.

[From Mr. LITTLE's Paper in the TRANSACTIONS of the ROYAL IRISH ACADEMY, Vol. X.

THERE are but few things produced by the united effort of mechanical artifice and intellectual labour, which have done more honour to the ingenuity and invention of man, than the reflecting telescope; which has many advantages over any of the dioptrical kind, notwithstanding their improvement by achromatic glasses. It will bear a greater aperture, and may be made to magnify more, (as being more distinct,) in proportion to its length, than the others, as they are at present made; and its dimensions and powers are unlimited. What its excellence is, especially the Newtonian construction of it, has been proved by Dr. Herschell, to his own honour, and that of the age, and country, and patronage, which encouraged his labours. Accordingly, the persons, eminent for science and mechanical ingenuity, appear to have felt a peculiar and disinterested pleasure, in contributing to its improvement: and the late discovery of a metallic composition for the mirrors of it, which will bear as high a polish as glass, reflect as much light as glass transmits, and endure almost equally well, without contracting tarnish, is a farther

encouragement to prosecute its improvement to perfection.

“Among others, I had formerly, from admiration at its contrivance, bestowed some attention on the mechanism of this instrument: and, as it would have spared me some expence of time and trials, if any other person had previously suggested to me the hints, which I am to relate; I imagine they will be of use to others, in directing or assisting the course of their labour, in the same pursuit. I had also taken some pains, to understand the merits of the different constructions of this telescope: but, as this enquiry ended in a conviction, that the Newtonian form of it is the most perfect that can be hoped for; (it being the nature of its great author, to persevere in his researches, till he had arrived at a complete solution of his doubts, and comprehension of the subject;) so I have only to report what resulted from my experience in the mechanical fabrication of it, as to the method of casting the mirrors, and communicating to them the proper figure.

“Before I had heard of the improvements of the Rev. Mr. Edwards, in the composition of the specula

specula for telescopes, I had made many experiments myself with that view; which led me to give full credit to his report of the superior excellence of that composition which he recommends: because I had found, that the qualities of hardness, whiteness, and indisposition to contract tarnish, necessary to a speculum, could not, by any admixture that I could hit upon, be produced, unless the metal were so highly saturated with tin, as to be excessively brittle; and because I found that this brittleness, however inconvenient in some respects, was necessary to render it susceptible of the highest polish: for no metal yet known, except steel, (which, from its disposition to rust, is unfit for this purpose,) will take as high a polish as glass will, unless it be more brittle than glass. And indeed this property is common to all substances which we know, that are capable of such polish: they must be very hard, and, as such, brittle; for the polishing powder employed would stick and bed itself in any soft metal, instead of cutting and polishing it.

“From the result of my trials, I contented myself with the composition mentioned hereafter, as being in every respect sufficient for the purpose, and inferior to none in whiteness, lustre, and exemption from tarnish: for, as to the addition of silver, I found that, when used in a very small quantity, it had an extraordinary property of rendering the metal so soft, that I was deterred from employing it: and unless it shall be found that, without this effect, it makes the metal less porous than otherwise it might be, or less frail and brittle, I am certain that it may, in every other respect, be dispensed with. I had no opportunity to try it, in

the precise quantity Mr. Edwards recommends, (though I did so before, in very nearly that proportion,) since I first saw his memoir on that subject. Sir Isaac Newton made trial of a very small portion of it, and found the same effects from it as I experienced: but it is possible, that, if it were added in the just proportion discovered by Mr. Edwards, it would be an improvement, and useful ingredient, in the composition.

“I must observe here, that a metal, not liable to contract tarnish from the air, is otherwise susceptible of it accidentally, when there happen to be minute holes in its surface, caused by the air, or sand, &c. in casting it. Such cavities will be filled with the dust, or rusty solution of the brass, in grinding; which will, in time, become a sort of vitriol, and act on the contiguous parts of the speculum, producing a canker in it, which will spread, in form of a cloud of tarnish, around each cavity. In such a case, to prevent this, I would advise, to lay the mirror, as soon as polished, in warm water, and, after drying, while it remains heated, to rub it over with spirit-varnish; from which it may be cleansed, by a piece of fine linen dipped in spirit of wine. The varnish will remain in the cavities; and, by defending the impurities in them from the action of the air, will probably preserve them from becoming corrosive to the metal.

“From numerous experiments, of the qualities of different compositions, made by several persons, it appears, that no combinations, of any other metals or semi-metals, are fit for specula, except those of copper, brass, tin, silver, and arsenic. I tried no semi-metal, except the latter, which whitens copper, and

unites intimately with it ; because it is stated, in the treatise of the Art of Assaying, by the observant and accurate Cramer, that all the semi-metals rise in flowers, during the fusion : which would certainly make the metal porous. On this account, I would have rejected the brass, because of the zinc contained in it ; but that it seemed to render the composition whiter, and less apt to tarnish, than it would be without it. It will have little tendency to rise in flowers, if the speculum-metal be fused, with the lowest heat requisite, and if the brass be of the best kind ; because, in this, the zinc is more perfectly united with the copper, and both are purer. I used, for this purpose, the brass of pin-wire : and, because the quantity of it was only the one eighth part of the copper employed, which, I imagined, would receive too fierce a heat, if put alone into the melted copper ; I first added to the brass, in fusion, about an equal quantity of the tin, and put the mass cold into the melted copper ; supplying afterward the remainder of the tin, and then the arsenic ; the whole being generally in the following proportion : viz. 32 parts best bar copper, previously fluxed with the black flux, of two parts tartar, and one of nitre, 4 parts brass, $16\frac{1}{2}$ parts tin, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ arsenic. I suppose, with others, that, if the metal be granulated, by pouring it, when first melted, into water, and then fused a second time, it will be less porous than at first.

“ In this process, whatever metals are used, and in what proportions soever, the chief object is, to hit on the exact point of saturation of the copper, &c. by the tin. For, if the latter be added in too great quantity, the metal will be dull-

coloured and soft ; if too little, it will not attain the most perfect whiteness, and will certainly tarnish. It is too late to discover the imperfections of the metal, after the mirrors are cast and polished ; and no tokens given of them (that I know) are sufficiently free from ambiguity. But I observed the following, which proved, in my trials, at first view, indubitable marks of the degree of saturation ; and I think it fit to describe them particularly, as they have not, to my knowledge, been noticed by others.

“ When the metal was melted, and before I poured it into the flask, I always took about the quantity of an ounce of it, with a small ladle, out of the crucible, and poured it on a cold flag ; and observed the following appearances.

“ First. If the metal assumed, in cooling, a lively blue, or purple colour, commonly intermixed with clouds, or shades of green or yellow ; and if, when broken, the face of the fracture exhibited a silvery whiteness, as bright and glistening as quicksilver, without any appearance of grain, or inequality of texture ; then the degree of saturation of the metal, with the tin, was complete and perfect.

“ Secondly. If the surface of the metal became of a dun or mouse colour, and especially if of a brown or red ; and, when broken, the fracture exhibited a more yellow, or tawny hue, than that of quicksilver ; then the quantity of tin in the composition was deficient, and it was necessary to add more.

“ Thirdly. If the colour was an uniform dull blue, like lead, and, where broken, discovered a dull colour,

colour, with a coarse grain, like facets; the due saturation was exceeded, and there was an over proportion of tin in the metal.

“ These colours would be more distinct, if a small quantity of the metal were cast in a flask, which had been previously smoked, by a candle, made of resin mixed with tallow; in which way I used to prepare the moulds. I attribute the formation of the colours to this: that, as the calx of every metal has its own peculiar colour, so, the heat of the melted mass, calcining some of the particles on its surface, which are in contact with the air, these display the colour of the calces of those ingredients, which prevail in the composition. Whence, it may be expected, that, if the copper is the redundant metal, the mass will exhibit a reddish tinge, which is appropriate to the calx of copper; and, if the tin be prevalent, a blueish dye ought to appear. Either of these colours, therefore, appearing unmixed, shews the redundancy of that metal, to which each belongs. And, as brass, when cast alone, has always a yellow tinge, so, when these three colours are exhibited in a cloud-like mixture, they shew an equality and due proportion of their respective metals in the composition. When too large a mass of the metal is cast together, its intense and lasting heat calcines the surface so deeply, as (when exposed to the air) to obscure the colours; so that a small quantity will best serve to exhibit them.

“ As to the method of casting the mirrors, it has been directed, to leave the ingate, or superfluous part of the cast, so large, as to contain a quantity of metal, equal to that in the mirror itself; which

would occasion a great waste of it, and render it not easy to cast, at once, more than one mirror in each mould; and even this might be done so injudiciously, as not to afford security against the miscarriage of the cast. But it will appear, that this great quantity of metal, and incommodious manner of casting it, are by no means necessary. However, a judgement cannot be formed, of what may be the safest and most eligible method for casting the mirrors, unless it be considered; what are the circumstances attending this operation, in the case of malleable metals; and how the management of speculum-metal, in this respect, must differ from that of them: since there must be peculiar difficulty in casting, in sand, a metal more brittle than glass.

“ When any fused metal is poured into the flask, the external parts of it, which are in contact with the mould, congeal and harden, sooner than the internal parts, and form a solid shell, filled with the rest of the metal, in a fluid state. This will, consequently, remain in a state of greater expansion, from its heat, than the external crust; and its particles will, in the act of shrinking as it cools, recede from one another, as being more easily separable, and cohere, on each side, with the particles already fixed and grown solid: by which means a vacuum will be formed in the middle, and this will be gradually filled by the superincumbent metal, which has been later poured in, and remains longer in a fluid state. But, when there is no more metal supplied, the void, which was in this way latest formed, remains unfilled; and then the shell of the metal, adjacent to the vacuum, as yet remaining soft, and

unable

unable to bear the weight of the atmosphere, resting on it, sinks, and is pressed down into the vacuum : by which means, a pit or cavity will be constantly and necessarily formed in the face of the cast, in that part of it which was last congealed ; which cavity will commonly be larger or smaller, in proportion to the quantity of metal in the cast.

“ The event will, in this respect, be the same with speculum-metal, as it is, in the case of that which is tough and malleable : only that as the former, in cooling, arrives sooner at its natural state of hardness and brittleness, its external solid shell will not bend, but break, and fall into the void part under it ; and thus form cracks, or abrupt chasms, in the places, where tougher metals would contract only regular depressions. And also, when the body of the cast is small, or the mould is so damp or cold, as to congeal, not only the surface, but the substance, of the cast too soon, and thus prevent a gradual influx of the fluid metal, to keep the central part as distended, as the exterior shell was, when it became fixed ; the farther contraction of the interior parts of this brittle, refractory metal, after it has become solid, will be apt to form rents in it, because its substance will not bear extension, without rupture.

“ It would be an obvious remedy of the above inconvenience, if there could be contrived a reservoir of fluid metal, to descend into the interior part of the cast, and fill up the void made in it, as fast, and as long, as it is forming by the contraction of the metal. Now, this is effected, by having a jet or appendage to the cast, of such a size, form, and position, as will be effectual to retain the metal,

composing it, in a state of fluidity ; and also to suffer it to descend into the interior of the cast, until all parts of the same become fixed, and incapable of receiving any farther influx of metal. For thus, all the imperfections, that would otherwise be in the cast itself, will now exist only in the appendage to it, which is a supernumerary part, to be afterwards separated from it. This appendage ought to be of the form of a prism, and as nearly that of a cube, as the operation of moulding it in the sand will permit ; for, in this gross shape, the metal in it will be the longer cooling. It should be connected with that part of the mirror, which is uppermost in the flask, and joined to it by a neck, equal in thickness to the edge of the mirror, (but so posited, that the face of the mirror may project a little above it,) and, in breadth, about twice the thickness. This neck ought to be as short as possible, i. e. just so as to permit it to be nicked round with the edge of a file, in order to break off the prism from the mirror when cast : for thus the heat of the large contiguous body of the prism will keep the neck from congealing ; which, if it happened, would stop the liquefied metal, in the prism, from running down into the mirror. And, to prevent this, the prism ought not to form directly a part of the main jet or ingate, by which the metal is poured into the flask ; for so the jet would cool sooner than the large mass of the mirror, and bear off the weight of the atmosphere, which ought to press on the fluid metal, in the prism underneath, and force it down into the mirror, to fill up all vacuities in it. Both the prism and the mirror, therefore, ought to be filled by a lateral channel, opening
(from

(from the principal ingate) into the top of the prism; which latter should be formed broad and flat, and not taper upward, like a pyramid, lest, by cooling where it grows narrow, it might form a solid arch, and oppose the pressure of the atmosphere. When it is fashioned, as here directed, and made of a bulk equal to a third or fourth part of the mass of the mirror, or even a fifth or sixth part, when the mirrors are of large size, there will ever be found, in the top of the prism, after the metal is cast, a deep pit or cavity, which contained the metal, that had ran down into the mirror, after the outer shell of the mirror, and sides of the prism, had become solid and congealed; and the mirror itself will be found perfect, without any sinking or cavity; which could only be formed by an injudicious disposition of the jet or appendage, permitting the metal in it to freeze sooner than the whole mass in the mirror, and thus stopping its descent into it. If several mirrors be cast together, in the same flask, there must be such a separate appendage made to each of them.

“ In this manner I have (without a failure in any) cast many mirrors of different sizes, and sometimes several of them together in one flask. But very small ones, such as the little mirrors for Gregorian telescopes, cannot be cast in this manner; for their masses being but small, they cool too quickly, to receive any additional infusion of metal; and their outer edges suddenly forming a solid incompressible arch, the central parts, in contracting towards it on every side, separate, and are rent asunder. And this has happened, even when I cast them in brass moulds made

red hot: on which account, I have been obliged to form them out of pieces of the metal, cast in long thin ingots or bars; which, by nicking them across with a file, could be easily broken into square pieces, whose corners could be taken off, and rounded in the same manner.

“ I do not repeat the other precautions to be observed in this process, which have been already so well and sagaciously described by the Rev. Mr. Edwards: but the circumstances above mentioned, a prudent attention to which is, in my opinion, essentially necessary to the success of it, are not to be collected from any directions published on the subject that are known to me. And though particular artists may, by large experience, arrive at a sufficient knowledge in this matter, for their own practice; yet, to render that knowledge general, and to contribute, as far as I could, to the improvement of this instrument in any hands, being the design of this essay, I thought it necessary to state the above particulars fully; though I doubt not that these, as well as other matters of moment in the operation, are known to many, who chuse not to make them public. Thus the great skill, in the construction of the telescope, acquired by Mr. Short, seems not to have been transmitted to any successor.

“ I come now to speak of the most difficult part of the mechanism of this instrument, that of communicating a proper figure to the mirrors; on which depend the powers of the telescope, when its dimensions are given: for the manner of polishing them, to the highest degree of lustre, has been already well understood and described. They who have tried this part of the

the work, and know how inconceivably small is that incorrectness of form which will produce grievous aberrations of the rays of light, will, I am sure, readily subscribe to the assertion, that '*hoc opus, hic labor est.*' Methods have indeed been proposed for accomplishing it; but not a single hint given, that I know, of the *modus operandi*, or the grounds of these methods: insomuch, that, when I first tried to polish mirrors, I had no idea why any figure of them, different from that of a sphere, should result from the modes of polishing recommended. But, on my making the attempt, in the ways proposed by Mr. Mudge and by Mr. Edwards, I was surprised to find, that sometimes a spheroidal or other irregular figure, and sometimes (though rarely) a conoidal one, was produced by each: the cause of either being to me then unknown; and disappointment or success appearing to depend on mere accident, and not on the degree of pains and accuracy used in the process.

"At length I began to suspect, that these variations, in the event of the process, (which will be hereafter accounted for,) arose from some property, not adverted to, in the pitch that covered the polishing tool; which material has been generally used for this purpose, of communicating a proper figure, as well as a high polish, to the mirror, since it was first recommended by sir Isaac Newton; being commonly spread on the polisher, to about the thickness of a crown-piece, and then covered with the polishing-powder; (the manner of doing which I suppose the reader to be acquainted with, as also with what has been made public on the subject, by Messrs. Hadley, Mudge,

Edwards, &c.;) and I was confirmed in my suspicion, from the following reasons, after I had found them approved by many repeated and diversified experiments.

"Pitch is a soft unelastic substance, which, as such, will suffer a permanent change of form, when it is made to sustain a degree of pressure sufficient to communicate an intestine motion to its particles: and this property directs us to consider, what may be the effect of the pressure of the mirror on it, when spread on the polisher, as to the figure it may then gradually acquire, during the operation of polishing, and the resistance and friction it will oppose to the mirror; for, by reason of the tenacity of its substance, it will resist a certain degree of pressure, without change of its form, but will yield to a greater pressure. But it is by its resistance the mirror is worn down and polished: if, therefore, that resistance be not uniform and equal on the whole surface of the polisher, neither will the abrasion of the mirror be equal in every part; the consequence of which must be, that both will degenerate from an uniform curvature, i. e. from a spherical figure; the mirror from unequal friction, and the polisher from its mobility, by which it will adapt itself to the successive alterations produced in the figure of the mirror; their mutual action and re-action inducing a change in both.

"As the pitch is (in our present enquiry) to be considered as an homogeneous substance, we must suppose, that its resisting force, as well as that of the pressure of the mirror on it, are uniformly diffused over the surface of the polisher: and, from hence, it may not, perhaps,

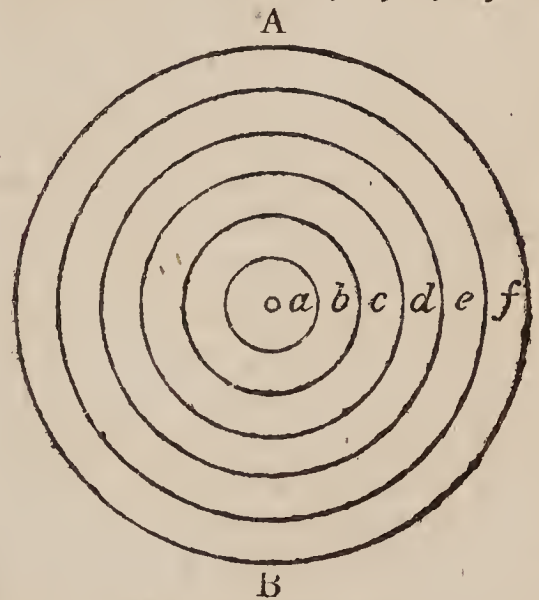
haps, be easy to conceive, how the surface of the mirror could sustain from it any inequality of resistance and friction. In fact, these would be equal and uniform, in every part, if the pitch were a substance, either of perfect hardness, or perfect fluidity: but it will hereafter appear, that its consistence must not be so hard, as to render it incapable of any change of form; but, on the contrary, so soft, as to yield, in a small degree, to the pressure of the mirror: at the same time, opposing a resistance, sufficient to wear down and polish it: and the enquiry is, how that resistance is modified.

“ Bodies of perfect hardness, such as glass, flints, &c. will not admit a total intimate change of their form, in all their dimensions, without a dissolution and permanent separation of all the particles composing their masses, (except when they are brought to a state of fusion by heat). But soft, viscid, semifluid bodies, such as lead, pitch, &c. will suffer such change, preserving the cohesion of their particles, yet, at the same time, undergoing a general intestine motion of all the particles among themselves: so that the coat of pitch, pressed, on each side, between the parallel surfaces of the mirror and polisher, will, by their force, be equally extended laterally in every direction; by which an equal quantity of motion will be communicated to all its particles: since no particles, except those at the extremities, can move, without protruding others, and these, the rest, successively, as if the mass were a fluid body.

“ But, though all parts of the surface of the polisher receive an equal pressure and motion, all do not exert an equal degree of resist-

ance to that pressure: for those parts, that cannot move without displacing and overcoming the resisting tenacity of a greater quantity of the surrounding mass of pitch, than other parts do, must oppose the greater resistance to the mirror, as having that of the other parts superadded to their own. For ascertaining this, the force impressed, and the quantity of pitch, confining any annular tract of the polisher, should be computed. In the present case, where the coat of pitch is a thin equal stratum, of circular form, we need regard only its superficial dimension, and consider all parts of it as alike situated in the above respect, which are equidistant from the center, or from the outer edge of the polisher.

“ To this purpose, let the surface of the polisher (supposed equal in size to the mirror) be represented by the circle *A B*; and its area be conceived to be composed of an indefinite number of concentric zones or annuli, *a, b, c, d, e, &c.*



Each of these will sustain an uniform pressure, from the mirror, proportional to its area; because, the force impressed on the mirror, and its attraction to the polisher, is equally diffused on it. The areas of these annuli, taken separately, are the differences of the two circles,

cles, whose peripheries inscribe and circumscribe each of them; as the area of the annulus d (for instance) is the difference of the circles, whose radii are $a d$ and $a c$; and they are, consequently, to each other, as the differences of the squares of their diameters, or as those of their radii; and the series of them, a, b, c, d, e , &c. taken, in order, from the center to the extremity, are strictly as a rank of figurate numbers proceeding from unity, viz. the odd numbers, 1, 3, 5, 7, &c. But, since their breadth is supposed to be indefinitely small, they may be taken as proportional to their mean diameters or radii, i. e. as their distances from the center of the polisher; which distances will, therefore, represent the pressure on each annulus, and the quantity of motion communicated by that pressure; seeing it must be, as the number of particles the annulus contains that are moved; i. e. as its area.

“ But the resistance to the force impressed on any annulus, being as the quantity of pitch to be put in motion by it, will be different, not only as the annulus is nearer to, or farther from, the margin of the polisher, but different, also, as this has either one margin only, or two, i. e. when the polisher is entirely covered with pitch, or when it has a space left uncoated at the middle; which latter always is, and must be the case, when the great mirror of the Gregorian telescope is to be polished, which has a perforation at its center.

“ Fi. st. When there is no vacant space in the middle: the resistance to the several annuli will be as the circumambient spaces only; because, the pitch not being compressible, it is only into these, and not towards the center, it can, in

yielding to the force or weight of the mirror, extend itself, by lateral motion: and the space, surrounding any annulus, is the difference between the circular area of the polisher, and that inscribed in the annulus; and is, relatively to the rest, measured by the difference of the squares of their radii, viz. of the distances of the edge of the polisher, and that of the annulus, from the center. But since, in this case, the bodies (of pitch) are unelastic, there can be no augmentation of motion; nor can the quantity of motion and action communicated, and, consequently, the resistance to it, and re-action, exceed that which is impressed: on which account, I imagine, that the resistance to the several annuli is to be taken as proportional to the pressures they sustain, and measured by them, i. e. by their magnitudes or areas, or the number of particles in them, to which a motion is imparted; which were stated to be as their respective radii or distances from the center: and, consequently, I suppose the resistance to be the inverse of this, or as the distances of the annuli from the outer edge of the polisher; which distances measure the direct resistance, or the quantity of pitch, to which equal motion, with that in the respective annuli, is communicated.

“ And from hence it follows, that, if a mirror, previously ground to a spherical figure, were to be polished on such a polisher as this: the resistance and friction of the pitch, being greatest, and increasing to a maximum at the center, and diminishing towards the extremity, would wear down and polish the mirror, most in the central part, and least towards its edges; thus giving to it a curvature, the reverse of a conoid, which it ought to have,

have, and which it can never at first acquire correctly, by any other mode of polishing, but that of wearing it most down (and thus reducing its curvature), towards its extremities.

“ Secondly. When there is a hole made through the center of the polisher, or a void space left there, uncoated with pitch.

“ In these circumstances, the pitch will have liberty to expand itself (when yielding to the pressure of the mirror), towards the center, as well as the edges of the polisher: and, as the resistance and friction, in any annular tract of it, is as the direct extent of pitch, bounding it on either side, it follows, from what has been laid down, that it will increase in any part, as the distance of the same annulus increases, from each extremity of the coating of the polisher; and will be in a ratio compounded of the distances, from the interior and exterior margins of the pitch. So that, if the breadth of the polisher between these margins were (for example) 5 inches: then the pressure and friction in the middle tract, equidistant from the outer and inner edges, would be, to that prevailing at the distance of half an inch from either margin, as $6\frac{1}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$, (nearly as three to 1;) and the same, at proportionate distances, in polishers of any other size; which unequal pressure could never produce, in the mirror, a regular curvature of any species; and, in the spaces nearer to the margins, the inequality of pressure would be still greater. Whence may be conceived the impossibility of figuring mirrors correctly, on polishers disposed in this manner, without some remedial contrivance; whether the face, or area of them, be of a circular shape, as directed by Mr.

Mudge and others, or oval, as proposed by Mr. Edwards: for the mirror would be thus least reduced, and left of a spherical form, at the middle and edges; and be worn down, and hollowed into a different and irregular curvature, in the intermediate tract.

“ For these inconveniences, however, arising from the unequal friction of the polisher, there are the following easy and adequate remedies; which will, in the sequel, be more fully explained, and applied as in practice, to effect the degree of curvature, or any correction of the same, which may be requisite.

“ First. Since the curvature of the mirror ought to be gradually reduced towards its edges, which can only be effected by an increase of friction in the corresponding part of the polisher; and that this latter effect is to be produced in any part of it, by enlarging the surrounding coat of pitch: it follows, that, for this purpose, the breadth of the polisher must be enlarged above that of the mirror; and this in the same degree, as the curvature of the mirror is to be diminished: so that the polisher is to be of greatest breadth, for a mirror of an hyperbolic, and least, for one of a spherical figure. This, however, is to be done, under the limitations hereafter mentioned.

“ Secondly To preserve the regular gradation of curvature towards the middle of the mirror, the uncoated space, at the center of the polisher, should be contracted to a certain limit, which will be defined; though, for the reasons above mentioned, it can never be filled up altogether.

“ Thirdly. Where the resistance and friction of the pitch, in any tract on the face of the polisher, is computed as above, or found in effect,

effect, to be too great; it may be lessened and regulated, in any degree, by cutting, out of that part of its surface, some of the pitch, at proper intervals, in narrow channels or furrows: the number and depth of which ought to be proportioned to their distance from the edges of the coat of pitch directly, and to the reduction of curvature, proper to the corresponding parts of the mirror inversely, and should be in a ratio compounded of both; for, by these cavities, the continuity of the pitch being dissolved, its resistance, depending thereon, may be modified at pleasure.

“In this manner may the polisher be so disposed, as to communicate a correct figure to large mirrors, and even to those of smallest size. Now, whatever success may have attended the efforts of other persons, in communicating a proper figure to the great speculum, (especially Mr. Short, whom I have manifold reasons for believing to have been among the most eminent opticians, as well as artists, that have laboured in the improvement of this instrument;) I have not heard, that any method has been proposed, of communicating, to the little mirror of the Gregorian

telescope, any other than a spherical form, which yet may in this manner be done. And it must, in this telescope, be a thing most desirable to accomplish; especially when its size and aperture is so great, that it would be difficult to impress, on the extensive surface of its great mirror, (merely by the small alteration of figure, which could be produced, in the delicate operation of polishing,) the degree of change, from its prior state of spherical curvature, which would be requisite; since the defect of form in this mirror, may, in these cases, (as will be shewn,) be easily compensated, in the figuration of the little mirror. For the greater size of this latter, in such instances, will render it capable of more steady handling and motion, and more equal pressure; and so more manageable, and susceptible of a correct figure, in proportion as the increased magnitude of the great mirror renders it unmanageable: which is, plainly, a great advantage, in the fabrication of this telescope; whose mirrors will thus, in the cases where it is most especially necessary and desirable, admit mutual correction and compensation for each other's defects.”

ON the GERMINATION and FERMENTATION of GRAIN and other FARINACEOUS SUBSTANCES.

[By MM. VAUQUELIN and FOURCROY; inserted in the ANNALES du MUSEUM d'HISTOIRE NATURELLE.]

“SIX years have now elapsed since we undertook a course of extensive inquiries upon vegetation, germination, and fermentation, in the laboratories of the Mu-

seum of Natural History. Although our experiments were very numerous a long time ago, we did not wish to publish them until we might consider our labours on the subject

subject as completed. In spite of all our exertions this period has not yet arrived; the multiplicity of our experiments, however, has presented us with several facts, which, from their novelty, must be useful to the arts and sciences dependent on them. Besides, as several chemists are about to publish memoirs and experiments upon the same subject, we thought it advisable to publish our observations in their present shape. We shall commence, therefore, by an analysis of the principal alimentary grains, and by the experiments we had made upon their germination and fermentation. We shall give, at the conclusion, our labours upon the chemical phenomena of vegetation.

§ I. *Analysis of the Farina of Wheat.*

“The water in which this farina has been macerated in equal quantities for six hours, clears very slowly; it is colourless, of a mild insipid taste, with the smell of bruised green corn; it becomes frothy by agitation; it does not redden turnsole paper, and it is not acid like barley water; it is precipitated by gall-nuts, by the acids, and particularly by the oxymuriatic acid; almost imperceptibly by the oxalate of potash, and not at all by lime water. It does not contain phosphate of potash, like the water which has been used in the maceration of garden beans.

“This liquor speedily becomes sour, and even during filtration; it precipitates yellowish flakes by means of heat; reduced to one-half by evaporation, it becomes a little saccharine; evaporated further, it is of a golden yellow, saccharine, acid and bitter, and becomes as thick as a strong solution of gum. In this second evaporation it forms on its surface a slender

flexible pellicle of yellowish flakes; it deposits upon the vessel containing it, a white hard crust of phosphate of lime.

“When thus thickened, the liquor is not disturbed by water; it is precipitated by the alkalis in a small quantity; abundantly by gall-nuts, by oxalate of ammonia, and by the acids. Alcohol coagulates it into a white, gluey, membranous, glutiniform substance, which, being evaporated, leaves a little deep yellow saccharo-acid matter.

“The substance precipitated by alcohol is at first white and dry, softens and changes to brown on losing the alcohol; it then becomes semi-transparent, mild, and nauseous; at last it dries in the air, and is hard, brittle, and transparent, like strong size; when burning it bubbles up with a white and fetid smoke, and leaves plenty of charcoal.

“It results from these experiments, that cold water makes of the farina of wheat a frothy substance precipitable by acids and gall-nuts, and which also sours, dissolves then more abundantly, and dissolves at the same time more of the phosphate of lime: it is analogous to gluten. It is united to a little mucilage, with a very small quantity of saccharine matter.

§ II. *Analysis of the Gluten of Wheat.*

“Fresh gluten well washed and very pure, macerated a long time in a little distilled water, renders it opaque, leaving in it a substance minutely suspended, which does not separate from it: repeated filtrations clarify it. The clear water is frothy; by infusion of galls it precipitates yellow flakes; by oxymuriatic acid it precipitates white flakes. Thus the gluten of wheat is soluble in cold water.

“ This solution when heated becomes muddy, deposits yellowish flakes, and retains them in spite of long ebullition.

“ The gluten placed in the oxymuriatic acid becomes soft quickly, seems to dissolve, and afterwards coagulate into yellowish white flakes, which become transparent and greenish upon drying; placed upon burning charcoal it crackles, exhaling oxymuriatic acid, and afterwards has all the appearances of common gluten.

“ It dissolves very freely in concentrated acetic acid, which it renders turbid, and from which it may be separated by means of the alkalis, with all its properties, even after a lapse of many years. This fact is already well known to chemists.

“ Plunged into water at the temperature of 12° (53.6 Fahr.), this gluten melts, bubbles up to the surface, becomes sour and fetid, and exhales carbonic acid gas. The water filtered, and not clarified, reddens turnsole paper very strongly; is soon precipitated and clarified by the acids; the oxymuriatic acid produces an abundant precipitate, if used in great quantity: it is precipitated also by infusion of gall-nuts and by the fixed caustic alkalis, which disengage ammonia from it. The latter, precipitated by the alkalis, is dissolved in plenty of water.

“ The water of fermentation of the gluten (one pound with three ounces of white sugar) converted sugar into good vinegar, without either fermentation, effervescence, or contact of the atmosphere.

“ The gluten already fermented, put a second time into water at the temperature of 12 degrees (53.6 Fahr.), ferments again, disengages carbonic acid, is weakly acidified, and its acidity is not increased at

the end of three or four days. The water decanted, and by this time fetid, reddens tincture of turnsole but slightly, and precipitates it; it becomes turbid by ammonia, the acids, infusion of galls, and the oxalate of ammonia; it deposits gluten by an excess of potash, exhaling an ammoniacal vapour.

“ After this second fermentation, which had formed ammonia and saturated the acid, the gluten becomes of a violet purple colour, forms at the surface of the water a pellicle of the same colour, becomes very fetid, passes afterwards to a blackish gray, and soon exhales the same odour with putrefied mucous membranes. At this period the water which floats above is blackish and muddy; it browns the nitrate of silver; blackens that of mercury at the minimum of oxidation by losing its own colour; becomes milky and inodorous by the oxymuriatic acid, and is no longer precipitated by infusion of galls.

“ After three months' putrefaction (March, April, and May,) the gluten had a brown colour, and exhaled only a weak smell, but presented a great diminution in volume and mass. Separated, and then submitted to desiccation, it dried into lumps, the smell of which resembled that of the earth of burying-places: it softened under the finger like wax; it melted and burned with a flame and a smell like fat, yielded very little carbon, and dissolved in alcohol, to which it gave a brown colour; the portion not dissolved was dry, pulverulent, inodorous, insipid, and very like the ashes of charcoal; it burned with the sharp smell of wood, without ammonia, and left reddish gray ashes, in which iron and silex were found.

“In this putrid decomposition of gluten azote is united to hydrogen, and a portion of carbon to oxygen, in order to form ammonia and carbonic acid. The carbon united more abundantly to hydrogen had produced the fat; and the principles superabundant to the formation of the carbonic acid, ammonia and fat, remained combined in a state something like that of a ligneous body.

§ III. *Analysis of Barley.*

“Good wholesome and fresh ground barley contains almost always the acetic acid completely formed, and an animal matter more abundantly soluble in water than that of the farina of wheat, on account of the presence of the acid. Some barleys are not acid at all.

“The water in which the farina of barley is diluted in equal volume, forms a thick, gluey, mucilaginous soup; when clarified, it is of an amber colour; its surface becomes brown, and the colour fades by degrees. After the departure of the acid, the water in which the barley is dissolved remains milky, and does not clarify, except by repeated filtrations. When drawn off, this water clarifies by itself, and becomes purple. It is very acid, and very nauseous; it contains an acid formed by fermentation, and an animal matter in large quantity, which the acid renders soluble.

“The last solution of the barley contains no more saccharine matter; it however experiences the acetic fermentation, is precipitated purple by gall-nuts, white by the acids and the alkalis, which re-dissolve the precipitate, and it is precipitated green by the prussiate of potash. The substance which thickens the different waters which

had washed the barley, is very analogous to the gluten of wheat.

“The above waters heated to 60° (140° of Fahr.), become muddy, deposit very abundant yellowish gray flakes, and yield red pellicles, brown at their surface. These flakes and pellicles, when burnt, leave a fifth of their weight of phosphate of lime and magnesia; they do not cause the saccharine matter to ferment. The liquor, after acquiring the consistence of syrup by evaporation, mixed with sugar, ferments no longer, so that the vegeto-animal matter of barley, dissolved in water, or already altered by fermentation, is not the ferment of sugar.

“The syrup of barley diluted in three or four parts of water, and the mixtures of the precipitates and of sugar, fermented and became sour, but without showing any appearance of alcohol; the vegeto-animal matter of the barley and sugar contributed to the formation of the acid. These syrups always preserved their saccharine matter and their vegeto-animal viscous matter. The sugar, being greatly diminished by these operations, may thus be acidified without being first converted into wine, and without the contact of the air.

“Barley water thickened into syrup, is brown, sweet, and acid; it is abundantly precipitated by gall-nuts, oxymuriatic acid, and the alkalis. Alcohol precipitates from it a very abundant brown matter, which furnishes a good deal of phosphate of lime by combustion.

“These phenomena, belonging to the solution of a vegeto-animal matter, explain why the vinegars produced from grains are less agreeable and less decomposable than

those produced from wine ; and also why they precipitate by gall-nuts, ammonia, and the acids, while wine vinegars do not present these characteristics. We see also by this how the vinegar of grains is better preserved after a slight ebullition, recommended by Scheele, who, no doubt, meant this kind of vinegar alone.

“ Barley, exhausted by washings in cold water, when digested a few days in alcohol, gives a yellow colour to it ; when distilled this alcohol contracts the smell and taste of spirits distilled from grain ; it leaves a thick oil, yellow, brown, and greenish, which is even got from barley not diluted, and which is then mixed with the saccharine substance. This discovery accounts for the bitterness of the water of peeled barley, and for the necessity of throwing away the first decoction of this grain.

“ One hundred parts of the farina of barley, macerated for thirty hours in alcohol, gave it a golden yellow colour, and the sharp taste of spirits distilled from grain. This alcohol is precipitated by means of water, and becomes much more odorous. When distilled, it preserved its smell, and left eight grammes of an oily matter, yellow, brown, and bitter, and which condensed into a species of soft beer. This matter contained sugar, which the water had separated from it, and was reduced to nearly an eighth of its primitive weight, in such a manner, that the oil of the barley only made an hundredth part of the grain.

“ This oil becomes clotty like olive oil ; it volatilizes on red hot iron ; it burns like any other fat oil, and forms a soap with alkalis. It is manifestly this oil which gives a bitter rancid taste to barley bread,

and the disagreeable smell and taste which belong to spirits from grains. We may observe, that this fixed or fat oil is not dissolved in alcohol, but by employing the latter in very great quantity.

“ The farina of barley, treated twice by alcohol, was washed four times with water ; the water evinced the same appearances as already said, only the vinegar which they yielded was of a lively taste and smell ; this certainly depends upon the alcohol which remained in the farina.

“ The husks, steeped in water, placed in fine linen and agitated in plenty of water, deposited starch ; there remained in the linen a sort of gray gluten, flaky, and a little elastic, which gave the same products, when exposed to the fire, as that of the farina, the incinerated charcoal of which furnished phosphate of lime and magnesia, quicklime and iron.

“ According to these experiments barley contains, 1st, fat oil, capable of concreting, weighing one hundredth ; 2dly, sugar, forming about seven hundredths ; 3dly, starch ; 4thly, an animal matter, partly soluble in the acetic acid and partly consisting of glutinous flakes ; 5thly, phosphates of lime and magnesia ; 6thly, silex and iron ; and, 7thly, acetic acid, which, however, is not in all barleys, but which is often enough found to deserve notice.

§ IV. *Analysis of Garden Beans.*

“ The infusion of the farina of garden beans, drawn clear off, and put into a phial well corked and completely filled, becomes troubled like milk, and makes an abundant deposit, which clears it up. Left in the phial for twenty days, it liberates no gas ; it is acid, preserves the

the taste of beans, reddens turnsole, and is precipitated, by means of lime water, in transparent flakes: by the oxalate of ammonia it is precipitated abundantly; by ammonia, but slightly; by gall-nuts, in flakes like wine lees; by the nitrates of mercury and silver, in yellowish white; and by the prussiate of potash, in green flakes which become blue.

“The spontaneous deposit becomes transparent upon drying; and burns like horn.

“The same infusion, put into a large bottle about three fourths empty, acts in the same manner as at first; it diminishes the volume of air, which afterwards contains a fifth part of carbonic acid, and the residue of which is then formed of 97.5 of azotic gas and of 2.5 of oxygen gas. The liquor assumes a smell slightly putrid, without acidity; it precipitates lime water, gall-nuts, &c. &c.

“The precipitate formed by lime water is of a purple colour, which blackens on drying; it yields ammonia on being burnt, and leaves a gray cinder, soluble in the muriatic acid with effervescence, from which ammonia precipitates it in gelatinous flakes, and the prussiate of potash in white. Thus this precipitate contains an animal matter—phosphate of lime and phosphate of iron, besides the phosphate of potash, remarked by M. Saussure, junior.

“We burned some dry garden beans to ashes in a platina crucible. The taste of these ashes was alkaline and caustic; they contained potash and phosphates of lime, magnesia, and iron, which the nitric acid dissolves.

“Garden beans also contain starch, an animal matter, phosphates of lime, magnesia, potash,

iron, and free potash. No sugar is found in it, at least not in any appreciable quantity.

“The tunic, or coat of these beans, contains tannin in abundance.

“This analysis explains, 1st, why beans putrefy so easily, and become infectious: 2dly, why they are so nourishing, and susceptible of filling the place of all other food: 3dly, why, when cooked with the skins on, they are better preserved: and, 4thly, why this article yields at once the aliment, the basis, and the materials proper to form and colour the blood, and to nourish the bones.

§ V. *Analysis of Lentils.*

“The farina of lentils, macerated in water, spreads the smell of this green leguminous herb; after an hour's maceration the water does not become clear, except after two filtrations; its taste is weak and nauseous; it is not acid; it precipitates abundantly by gall-nuts and the oxymuriatic acid, as well as by sulphate of iron: lime water renders it milky. It becomes troubled spontaneously, and becomes speedily milky; the alkalis render it clear by making it yellow; the acids, which clear it at first, put into it afterwards in excess, precipitate it strongly. This seems to indicate that the liquor owes its limpidity to the alkali which absorbs the acid, either spontaneous or added.

“The infusion grows frothy and coagulates at a boiling heat; when filtered, it precipitates, but less abundantly, by the re-agents indicated.

“Upon inclosing, at a low temperature, this infusion, already troubled, in two flasks, the one filled, and the other three-fourths

empty, with Woolf's tubes, we saw it become clear, and deposit white flakes after some hours. We did not observe, after a few days, any apparent change of the liquor, disengagement of gas, or absorption of air, the water was ascendent, and the air above it contained a little carbonic acid gas.

"Lime hindered the spontaneous precipitation of the infusion until it was saturated by its fermented acid.

"Fifteen parts of alcohol, digested several times upon the coarser farina of lentils, was coloured a greenish yellow, and acquired a bitter and sharp taste. When distilled, the produce yielded a very strong smell of *vanilla*, which water caused to disappear by changing it into another very disagreeable. The residue of this distillation is yellowish green; a thick green oil floats at the surface; the liquor is thick and gluey, of a saponaceous smell, and of a rancid taste; the acids and lime water coagulate it like a water of soap. Sulphuric acid, by decomposing it, collects on its surface a rancid greenish oil of the smell of *populeum*: upon evaporating the water a black residue is obtained of a saline appearance, but in such a small quantity that we could not determine the nature of it.

"Whole lentils, macerated in double their weight of water, yield, after twenty-four hours, a greenish yellow infusion of an astringent taste. Water precipitates a strong size, sulphate of iron a fine blue, and acetate of lead a yellowish white, without reddening the blue colours: lentils, stripped of their skin, afford no traces of tannin, which seem only to belong to this envelope.

"When cleaned completely by means of water, the skins of these

lentils macerated in alcohol gave it a fine yellowish green colour; spontaneously evaporated, this alcohol deposited green flakes and a crust of the same colour; it blackened the solution of iron. After this double treatment, these skins are dry and arid. They furnished upon distillation a good deal of oil, the smell and taste of which resembled tobacco smoke; the water of the distillation is acid, but yields ammonia by means of potash. Thus, besides the feculent matter, lentils contain a kind of albumen and a little green oil: their bark contains tannin and more oil.

§ VI. *Analysis of the Farina of Lupines.*

"1st, This farina is yellow and very bitter; when exposed to the fire, it exhales an animal odour.

"2d, Distilled in a retort it yields three-twelfths of charcoal, nearly seven-twelfths of a foetid red oil, a twelfth of phlegm, and a twelfth of crystallized carbonate of ammonia. The water contains a little ammoniacal acetate. We find in the charcoal phosphate of potash, because its watery ley precipitates calcareous phosphate by the addition of lime-water. We also find in the ashes of the burned farina of lupines, phosphates of lime, magnesia and iron.

"3d, It colours alcohol yellow, and renders it bitter; the latter, spontaneously evaporated, leaves a yellow, thick, and very bitter oil, forming a seventh of the weight of the farina, which almost entirely dissipates upon burning coals, with the smell of fat oil.

"4th, The farina of lupines gives water a yellow colour, a bitter taste, and a frothy quality, without rendering it either acid or alkaline. This water precipitates white flakes
by

by the oxymuriatic acid; a purple coagulum by infusion of galls*; very abundant white flakes by the nitrates of mercury and silver, and the acetate of lead: there are a few muriates, not soluble by the nitric acid, in the latter precipitates. It yields also yellowish flakes by means of lime water, and a white powder of calcareous oxalate by means of the ammoniacal oxalate.

“ 5th, The farina, treated twice successively by alcohol and water, is dissolved almost entirely afterwards in the concentrated acetic acid: this solution, by means of the infusion of galls, precipitates in abundance oxymuriatic acid, ammonia, and mercury.

“ 6th, Diluted in water, and exposed to a gentle heat, the farina of lupine ferments, exhales carbonic acid, forms acetic acid, without any vestige of alcohol, and soon putrefies, exhaling a foetid odour.

“ It results from this analysis that the farina of lupines contains:

“ 1st, A bitter and coloured oil, to the amount of a seventh, which communicates its properties to the whole mass.

“ 2nd, A vegeto-animal matter, soluble in plenty of water, and much more so in the acetic acid. It is this which furnishes oil and ammonia upon distillation, and which gives to the watery infusion all its properties of precipitation.

“ 3rd, Phosphates of lime and magnesia abundant enough, and small quantities of phosphates of potash and iron.

“ 4th, It contains neither starch nor sugar, and, on this account, differs from the other leguminous farinas.

§ VII. Upon the Germination of Leguminous Seeds.

“ 1st, In Floreal of the year 12, we placed lentils and garden beans, freed from their husks, under a bell-glass full of atmospheric air, placed upon water, and in a capsule of porcelain. The former germinated three or four days afterwards; their radicles were very long, and the plumules very perceptible; twelve days afterwards their height was three centimetres; their leaves were displayed. The beans had no sign of germination at all; their radicles, however, were lengthened, without the plumule having made any progress. They began to turn mouldy, and at this period the experiment was stopped. The air of the bell-glass extinguished a taper and precipitated lime water, although it still allowed phosphorus to burn a little.

“ 2nd, The same seeds, placed at the same period under a bell-glass full of hydrogen gas placed upon water, presented no appearance of germination, not even a development of the radicle; they preserved their freshness and consistence; the beans did not turn mouldy. The hydrogen gas contained carbonic acid entirely formed by the seeds, which afterwards germinated in the open air. Thus hydrogen gas does not favour germination; but it does not take away from seeds the property of germinating.

“ 3d, Garden beans macerated in water, deprived of their skin, and afterwards replunged in this liquid, did not germinate in the course of eight days; the water became sour, and assumed the smell of sour cheese.

* M. Vauquelin attributes this colour to a little phosphate of iron.

“ 4th, The water sharpened with a little oxymuriatic acid had no more success. The lentils, treated in the same manner, did not germinate. These seeds no longer germinated in the air; those which had been plunged in water, on the contrary, germinated in the air.

“ 5th, The same seeds peeled, covered with a little water, enough, however, to be deprived of the contact of the air, putrefied, instead of germinating. When only moistened, however, and without being deprived of this contact, they germinated very well, and sent out coloured leaves, although in the shade.

“ We may conclude from these experiments that the influence of the air is requisite for germination, as has been already announced by M. de Saussure.

§ VIII. *Experiments upon the Fermentation of Grain.*

“ 1st, Two pounds of ground germinated barley, placed with six pounds of water heated to 55° (131° Fahr.) in a matrass furnished with a crooked tube, fermented in four hours in a heat of 22° (72° Fahr.) The fermentation continued 26 hours. The gas disengaged and collected was partly formed of carbonic acid and partly of hydrogen gas pure enough. Six days afterwards this barley was distilled, from which a product was obtained equal at least to one-third of the water employed. This produce, heavier than water, was acid and empyreumatic. This acidity demonstrates the conversion of alcohol into acetous acid. The liquor, which was saccharine at the period of distillation, was no longer so afterwards.

“ 2d, The same ground and germinated barley, but deprived of its

bran by bolting, was treated in the same manner as in the first experiment; it fermented with the same appearances, and yielded an equal part of carbonic acid gas, and hydrogen gas. Thus the bran was not the source of the latter gas, as at first supposed.

“ 3d, Brewers' mash, exposed in the same apparatus to the same temperature of 22 degrees, fermented more quickly with a more rapid effervescence, and its gas was merely carbonic acid, without hydrogen gas. Thus the latter depends upon the farina mixed with flour.

“ 4th, The farina of germinated barley, with water, exposed in the matrass to a temperature of 15° (59° of F.) did not ferment until the end of five hours; and its gas was condensed by potash. Upon raising the temperature to 22 degrees, there came off a mixture of gas not soluble and inflammable, the proportion of which was soon equal to that of the carbonic acid. Thus it is necessary that there should be a heat of upwards of 20° (68° of F.) before there can be any liberation of hydrogen gas in the farina of barley which is fermenting.

“ 5th, Six pounds of ground barley, not germinated, treated at three several times with twelve pounds of warm alcohol, furnished one ounce two drachms of pure sugar; while six pounds of germinated barley, treated in the same manner, yielded four ounces and two drachms, or about 5 per cent; which is four times what the barley contained previous to germination. Thus, germination forms sugar, as we have announced.

“ 6th, We put 24 pounds of farina of barley, not germinated, into a tub with seven times its weight of hot water at 70° (158° of F.) and four pounds of mild beer yeast.

Fermentation

Fermentation immediately commenced with great violence; and continued seven days. The liquor submitted to distillation, with the husks, yielded nine litres of a weak and empyreumatic liquid, which, being passed again through the still, furnished 16 decilitres of an alcohol at 16 degrees, which comes to nine decilitres at 40 degrees. These nine decilitres, weighing 23 ounces, and 24 pounds of barley not germinated, containing only five ounces of sugar, it follows, that four times more alcohol was formed than there was sugar in this farina. Lavoisier, however, asserts that 100 pounds of sugar furnish only 58 pounds of alcohol.

“ 7th, Twenty-four pounds of germinated and ground barley, made to ferment under the same circumstances as barley not germinated, presented the same phenomena, and only varied in their products. There were two litres 0.3 of alcohol at 40 degrees, which makes five pounds of alcohol for a quintal of barley, or three times more alcohol than there was sugar; and this answers to the produce of barley not germinated.

“ It must be concluded from these results that it is some other substance than sugar which is converted into

alcohol, although sugar is indispensable to its production and to the establishment of fermentation.

“ 8th, Two pounds of farina of bolted wheat, mixed with six pounds of water at 60° (140° F.) remained six hours without motion. The next day, after having remarked the swelling of the mass, we placed the matrass upon a sand-bath a little heated, and added water to favour the disengagement of the gas. We obtained hydrogen gas twice larger in volume than carbonic acid. The vessel, having been taken off the sand-bath, the temperature having decreased to 14° (57° of F.) the fermentation all at once stopped. The liquid, when submitted to distillation, did not yield alcohol, but an acid liquor.

“ The farina of wheat, therefore, does not form alcohol by fermentation; yeast is indispensable for this fermentation, although it does not enter into the composition of alcohol; by accelerating the alcoholic fermentation, it opposes the formation of vinegar. When, on the contrary, the fermentation is very slow, the alcohol becomes acetous in proportion as it is formed; perhaps even then sugar and the other fermenting substances pass into the acid state without acoholizing.”

NEW PROCESS for clearing FEATHERS from their ANIMAL OIL.

By MRS. JANE RICHARDSON.

[Inserted in the TRANSACTIONS of the SOCIETY of ARTS, COMMERCE, &c.]

“ TAKE for every gallon of clean water, one pound of quick-lime; mix them well together, and when the undissolved lime is precipitated in fine powder,

pour off the clear lime-water for use, at the time it is wanted.

“ Put the feathers to be cleared in another tub, and add to them a quantity of the clear lime-water, sufficient

sufficient to cover the feathers about three inches when well immersed and stirred about therein.

"The feathers, when thoroughly moistened, will sink down, and should remain in the lime-water three or four days, after which the foul liquor should be separated from the feathers by laying them on a sieve.

"The feathers should be afterwards well washed in clean water and dried upon nets; the meshes about the fineness of cabbage-nets.

"The feathers must from time to time be shaken upon the nets, and as they dry will fall through the meshes, and are to be collected for use.

"The admission of air will be serviceable in the drying. The whole process will be completed in about three weeks; after being prepared as above mentioned, they will only require beating for use.

"Mr. Jolly, poulterer, of Charing-cross, attended a committee of the society appointed to inspect the feathers, and stated that Mrs. Richardson had bought from him forty pounds weight of feathers, in the state they were plucked from dead geese, and in such a condition that if they had been kept in the bag only four days, without being cleansed, they would have been very offensive; that the feathers exhibited by Mrs. Richardson appear to be the same he had sold her, but they were now in a much cleaner state, and seemed perfectly cleared from their animal oil.

"The committee, in order to authenticate more fully the merits of Mrs. Richardson's process, requested Mr. Grant, a con-

siderable dealer in feathers, to furnish some specimens of feathers of different kinds in an unclean state, to be cleansed by Mrs. Richardson; in consequence whereof an application was made to Mr. Grant, and the following letter received from him:

"SIR,—I take the liberty of sending herewith three samples of feathers, on which the experiments may be tried; but should the quantity not be sufficient, on being favoured with your commands, shall with pleasure send any quantity necessary.

"The bag No. 1, contains the commonest feathers we ever make use of—it is a Russian produce of various wild fowl; No. 2, gray Dantzick goose; No. 3, a superior kind of Dantzick goose.

"The two first are in their raw state, just taken out of the bags in which they were imported; the last have been stoved the usual time (three days), but retain their unpleasant smell. Should it not be considered giving you too much trouble, shall be extremely obliged by your favouring me with a line when the experiment has been made, and I shall be happy in waiting upon you to know the result.

I am respectfully, &c.

No. 226, 'THOMAS GRANT.'
Piccadilly.

"After the feathers last mentioned were sent back by Mrs. Richardson, Mr. Grant attended to examine them, and declared that they appeared to be perfectly well cleaned.

"Certificates from Mr. Christopher Bushnan, No. 10, Beaufort-row, Chelsea, and from Mr. W. Baily, testified to the efficacy of Mrs. Richardson's process."

NEW METHOD OF CLEANSING SILK, WOOLLEN, and COTTON GOODS, without damage to the TEXTURE or COLOUR.

By MRS. ANN MORRIS.

[From the Same.]

“TAKE raw potatoes, in the state they are taken out of the earth, wash them well, then rub them on a grater over a vessel of clean water to a fine pulp, pass the liquid matter through a coarse sieve into another tub of clear water; let the mixture stand till the fine white particles of the potatoes are precipitated, then pour the mucilaginous liquor from the fecula, and preserve this liquor for use. The article to be cleaned should then be laid upon a linen cloth on a table, and having provided a clean sponge, dip the sponge in the potatoe-liquor, and apply the sponge thus wet upon the article to be cleaned, and rub it well upon it with repeated portions of the potatoe-liquor, till the dirt is perfectly separated; then wash the article in clean water several times, to remove the loose dirt; it may afterwards be smoothed or dried.

“Two middle-sized potatoes will be sufficient for a pint of water.

“The white fecula which separates in making the mucilaginous

liquor will answer the purpose of tapioca, will make an useful nourishing food with soup or milk, or serve to make starch and hair-powder.

“The coarse pulp which does not pass the sieve is of great use in cleaning worsted curtains, tapestry, carpets, or other coarse goods.

“The mucilaginous liquor of the potatoes will clean all sorts of silk, cotton, or woollen goods, without hurting the texture of the article, or spoiling the colour.

“It is also useful in cleansing oil paintings, or furniture that is soiled.

“Dirty painted wainscots may be cleaned by wetting a sponge in the liquor, then dipping it in a little fine clean sand, and afterwards rubbing the wainscot therewith.

“Various experiments were made by Mrs. Morris in the presence of a committee, at the Society’s house: the whole process was performed before them upon fine and coarse goods of different fabrics, and to their satisfaction.”

P O E T R Y.

ODE FOR THE NEW YEAR.

By HENRY JAMES PYE, Esq. POET LAUREAT.

WHEN ardent zeal for virtuous fame,
 When virtuous honour's holy flame,
 Sit on the gen'rous warriors sword,
 Weak is the loudest lay the Muse can sing,
 His deeds of valour to record ;
 And weak the boldest flight of Fancy's wing :—
 Far above her high career,
 Upborne by worth th' immortal Chief shall rise,
 And to the lay-enraptur'd ear
 Of seraphs, list'ning from th' empyreal sphere,
 Glory, her hymn divine, shall carol through the skies.

For though the Muse in all unequal strain*
 Sung of the wreaths that Albion's warriors bore
 From ev'ry region and from ev'ry shore,
 The naval triumphs of her George's reign—
 Triumphs by many a valiant son
 From Gaul, Iberia, and Batavia won ;
 Or by St. Vincent's rocky mound,
 Or sluggish Texel's shoaly sound ;
 Or Haffnia's† hyperborean wave
 Or where Canopus' billows lave
 Th' Egyptian coast, while Albion's genius guides
 Her dauntless Hero through the fav'ring tides,
 Where rocks, nor sands, nor tempests' roar,
 Nor batteries thund'ring from the shore,
 Arrest the fury of his naval war,
 When Glory shines the leading star ;—
 Still higher deeds the lay recording claim,
 Still rise Britannia's sons to more exalted fame.

The fervid source of heat and light,
 Descending through the western skies,
 Though veil'd awhile from mortal sight,
 Emerging soon with golden beam shall rise,

* Alluding to a poem called Naucratia, written by the author, and dedicated by permission to his Majesty.

† Copenhagen.

In orient climes with brighter radiance shine,
 And sow th' ethereal plains with flame divine.
 So, damp'd by Peace's transient smile,
 If Britain's glory seem to fade awhile,
 Yet, when occasion's kindling rays
 Relumine valour's gen'rous blaze,
 Higher the radiant flames aspire,
 And shine with clearer light, and glow with fiercer fire,

From Europe's shores th' insidious train,
 Eluding Britain's watchful eye,
 Rapid across th' Atlantic fly
 To Isles that stud the western main ;
 There proud their conqu'ring banners seem to rise,
 And fann'd by shadowy triumphs, flout the skies :
 But, lo ! th' avenging Pow'r appears,
 His victor-flag immortal Nelson rears ;
 Swift as the raven's ominous race,
 Fly the strong eagle o'er th' ethereal space,
 The Gallic barks the billowy deep divide,
 Their conquests lost in air, o'erwhelm'd in shame their pride,

The hour of vengeance comes—by Gades' tow'rs,
 By high Trafalgar's ever-trophied shore,
 The godlike warrior on the adverse Pow'rs
 Leads his resistless fleet with daring prone.
 Terrific as th' electric bolt that flies
 With fatal shock athwart the thund'ring skies,
 By the mysterious will of Heaven
 On man's presuming offspring driven,
 Full on the scatter'd foe he hurls his fires,
 Performs the dread behest, and in the flash expires—

But not his fame—While chiefs who bleed
 For sacred duty's holy meed,
 With glory's amaranthine wreath,
 By weeping Victory crown'd in death,
 In History's awful page shall stand
 Foremost amid th' heroic band ;
 Nelson ! so long thy hallow'd name
 Thy country's gratitude shall claim ;
 And while a people's Pæans raise
 To thee the choral hymn of praise,
 And while a patriot Monarch's tear
 Bedews and sanctifies thy bier,
 Each youth of martial hopes shall feel
 True valour's animating zeal ;
 With emulative wish thy trophies see,
 And heroes, yet unborn, shall Britain owe to thee,

ODE FOR THE KING'S BIRTH-DAY.

By HENRY JAMES PYE, Esq. POET LAUREAT.

LONG did chill Winter's dreary reign
 Usurp the promis'd hours of Spring ;
 Long Eurys o'er the russet plain

Malignant wav'd his noisome wing.
 O'er April's variegated day
 The frolic zephyrs fear'd to play ;
 Th' alternate change of suns and showers
 Call'd not to life her silken flowers ;
 But arm'd with whirlwind, frost, and hail,
 Winter's ungenial blasts prevail,
 And check her vernal powers.

But o'er the renovated plain
 See Maia lead her smiling train
 Of halcyon hours along ;
 While burst from every echoing grove
 Loud strains of harmony and love,
 Preluding to the choral song,
 Which opening June shall votive pour
 'To hail with proud acclaim our Monarch's natal hour.

Still must that day, to Britain dear,
 To Britons joy impart ;
 Cloudy or bright, that day shall wear
 The sunshine of the heart.
 And as before the fervid ray
 That genial glows in summer skies,
 Each cloud that veil'd the beam of day
 Far from the azure welkin flies :
 So may each cheerless mist that seems
 Awhile to cloud our prospects fair,
 Dispell'd by hope's enlivening beams,
 Our brightening ether fly, and melt away in air.

Awhile though Fortune adverse frown—
 By timid friends their cause betray'd,
 With bosom firm and undismay'd,
 On force depending all their own,
 A living rampire round their parent Lord,
 The British warriors grasp th' avenging sword ;
 While youths of royal hope demand the fight,
 To assert a Monarch and a Father's right.
 United in one patriot band,
 From Albion's, Erin's, Caledonia's land,
 Elate in arms indignant shine
 The kindred heroes of the Briton line,
 To whelm invasion 'neath our circling flood,
 Or stain our verdant fields with Gallia's hostile blood.

ADDRESS OF MARY QUEEN OF SCOTLAND, ON THE ANNUNCIATION OF HER
fatal SENTENCE.

[Translated by Lord HOLLAND, from LOPE DE VEGA'S POEM ON THIS
unfortunate Princess.]

THANKS for your news, illustrious lords, she cried ;
I greet the doom that must my griefs decide :
Sad though it be, though sense must shrink from pain,
Yet the immortal soul the trial shall sustain.

But had the fatal sentence reach'd my ears
In France, in Scotland, with my husband crown'd,
Not age itself could have allayed my fears,
And my poor heart had shudder'd at the sound.
But now immur'd for twenty tedious years,
Where nought my listening cares can catch around
But fearful noise of danger and alarms,
The frequent threat of death, and constant din of arms,

Ah ! what have I in dying to bemoan ?
What punishment in death can they devise
For her who living only lives to groan,
And see continual death before her eyes ?
Comfort's in death, where 't is in life unknown ;
Who death expects feels more than he who dies :—
Though too much valour may our fortune try,
To live in fear of death is many times to die.

Where have I e'er repos'd in silent night,
But death's stern image stalk'd around my bed ?
What morning e'er arose on me with light,
But on my health some sad disaster bred ?
Did Fortune ever aid my war or flight,
Or grant a refuge for my hapless head ?
Still at my life some fearful phantom aim'd,
My draughts with poison drugg'd, my towers with treachery
flamed.

And now with fatal certainty I know
Is come the hour that my sad being ends,
Where life must perish with a single blow ;
Then mark her death whom steadfast faith attends :
My cheeks unchang'd my inward calm shall show,
While free from foes, serene, my generous friends,
I meet my death—or rather I should say,
Meet my eternal life, my everlasting day.

The LUCKY ESCAPE.

[By the Same, translated from the *ARCADIA* of the Same.]

IN the green season of my flowering years,
 I liv'd, O Love! a captive in thy chains;
 Sang of delusive hopes and idle fears,
 And wept thy follies in my wisest strains:
 Sad sport of time when under thy controul,
 So wild was grown my wit, so blind my soul.

But from the yoke which once my courage tam'd
 I, undeceived, at length have slipp'd my head,
 And in that sun whose rays my soul inflam'd,
 What scraps I rescued at my ease I spread.
 So shall I altars to *Indifference* raise,
 And chaunt without alarm returning freedom's praise:

So on their chains the ransom'd captives dwell;
 So carols one who cured relates his wound;
 So slaves of masters, troops of battle tell,
 As I my cheerful liberty resound.
 Freed, sea and burning fire, from thy controul;
 Prison, wound, war, and tyrant of my soul.

Remain then, faithless friend, thy arts to try
 On such as court alternate joy and pain;
 For me, I dare her very eyes defy,
 I scorn the amorous snare, the pleasing chain;
 That held enthrall'd my cheated heart so long,
 And charm'd my erring soul unconscious of its wrong:

CORYDON. (A MONODY.)

[From Mr. RAYMOND'S LIFE of THOMAS DERMODY.]

(In this Monody the author, a youth of ten years of age, bewails the death of his brother; who died of the small-pox, *an.* 1785, *etatis* 7.)

WHAT dire misfortune hovers o'er my head?
 Why hangs the salt dew on my aching eye?
 Why doth my bosom pant, so sad, so sore,
 That was full blithe before?—
 Bitter occasion prompts th' untimely sigh;
 Why am I punish'd thus, ye angels! why?
 A shepherd swain like me, of harmless guise,
 Whose sole amusement was to feed his kine,
 And tune his oaten pipe the livelong day,

Could

Could he in aught offend th'avenging skies,
 Or wake the red-wing'd thunderbolt divine?
 Ah! no: of simple structure was his lay;
 Yet unprofan'd with trick of city art,
 Pure from the head, and glowing from the heart.—
 Thou dear memorial of a brother's love,
 Sweet flute, once warbled to the list'ning grove,
 And master'd by his skilful hand,
 How shall I now command
 The hidden charms that lurk within thy frame,
 Or tell his gentle fame?

Yet will I hail, unmeet, his star-crown'd shade;
 And beck his rural friends, a tuneful throng,
 To mend the uncouth lay, and join the rising song.
 Ah! I remember well yon oaken arbour gay.
 Where frequent at the purple dawn of morn,
 Or 'neath the beetling brow of twilight grey,
 We sate, like roses twain upon one thorn,
 Telling romantic tales, of descant quaint,
 Tinted in various hues with fancy's paint:
 And I would hearken, greedy of his sound,
 Lapt in the bosom of soft ecstasy,
 Till, lifting mildly high
 Her modest frontlet from the clouds around,
 Silence beheld us bruise the closing flow'rs,
 Meanwhile she shed her pure ambrosial show'rs.

O Shannon! thy embroider'd banks can tell
 How oft we stray'd beside thy amber wave,
 With osier rods arching thy wizard stream,
 Or weaving garlands for thy liquid brow.
 Ah me! my dearest partner seeks the grave;
 The ruthless grave, extinguisher of joy.
 Fond Corydon, scarce ripen'd into boy,
 Where shall I ever find thy pleasing peer?
 My task is now (ungrateful task, I ween!)
 To cull the choicest offspring of the year,
 With myrtles mix'd, and laurels varnish'd bright;
 And, scatt'ring o'er thy hillock green
 The poor meed, greet the gloom of night.

Ye healing Pow'rs, that range the velvet mead,
 Exhaling the fresh breeze from Zephyr's bow'r,
 Oh! where, in that unhappy hour,
 Where did you fly from his neglected head?
 O Health, thou mountain maid of sprightliest cheek,
 Ah! why not cool his forehead meek?
 Why not in his blest cause thy pow'r display,
 And chase the fell disorder far away?

For he erewhile, most lovely of thy train,
 Wont the entangled wood to trace,
 Would hear the jocund horn, and join the chase :
 Till thou relinquish'dst him to grief and pain,
 E'en in the bloom of flourishing age ;
 And Death, grim tyrant, from his plague-drawn car
 Espied the horrid Fury's ruthless rage,
 Then wing'd his ebon shaft, and stopp'd the ling'ring war.

Yet cease to weep, ye swains ; for if no cloud
 Of thwarting influence mar my keener sight,
 I mark'd a stranger-star, serenely bright,
 Burst from the dim inclosure of a shroud.
 'T was Corydon ! a radiant circlet bound
 His brow of meekness ; and the silver sound,
 Shook from his lyre, of gratulations loud,
 Smooth'd the unruffled raven-plume of Night.—

Thus chanted the rude youth his past'ral strain,
 While the cold earth his playmate's bosom press'd,
 And now the sun, slow westing to the main,
 Panted to give his wearied coursers rest ;
 The azure curtains took a crimson strain,
 And Thetis shone, in golden garment drest.
 The shepherd-minstrel bent his homeward way,
 And brush'd the dew-drops from the glitt'ring spray.

THE POET'S RECANTATION.

Addressed to Mr. BERWICK.

[From the Same.]

“ *Facit recantatio versum.* * ”

PUFF'D with false hopes of fame and honour,
 My muse (the Philistines upon her!),
 Stiff in her own bold *ipse Dixit*,
 Erst sent me out a true Don Quixote ;
 Despising wealth, content, and pleasure,
 For authorship's enchanted treasure :
 Nor could the great Eliza's † kindness
 Purge from my eye poetic blindness.
 At last, well vers'd in cares and trouble,
 I see my former folly double
 (As *Ædipus*, with haggard eyes,
 'Saw double suns and worlds arise ;'

* “ *Facit indignatio versum.* ” HOR.

† Countess of Moira.

So Virgil, prince of epic fellows,
 Is pleas'd in his ninth book to tell us) ;
 And, startled at my faults and foibles,
 Firm as if sworn on fifty Bibles,
 Declare eternal hate, and lasting,
 To lagging rhymes and paper-wasting.
 Not Brutus did so much determine
 To hunt from Rome the royal vermin.
 Thus then, in a most furious fashion,
 I write (not *read*) my recantation.

Imprimis (pray your godship, mind me) ;
 Phœbus, I cast thee far behind me ;
 And all thy books, facetè or tragic,
 I look upon as spells or magic.

In second place, I do combine
 Body and blood against the Nine :
 Ill-natur'd ballad-chanting slatterns ;
 That spoil'd my luck, and lost my patrons.

Lastly, *cum vi, et corum rege*,
 I do, my reverend sir, engage ye,
 To view a quill from goose or sparrow
 As if it was a Parthian arrow,
 Or William Tell's unerring dart,
 Directly bouncing to my heart.
 Neither shall ink or black or pallid,
 (I *swear*, to make your trust more valid,)
 For me in cup or bottle teem,
 No more than Pluto's Stygian stream.
 For ink's, I find by disquisition,
 The very essence of perdition ;
 The gall was made for man's undoing,
 And signs the bond 'twixt him and ruin.
 And if, some time hence, sorely smit
 By flashes of electric wit,
 I should, in deep-designing malice,
 Deal with the volume-vending tories*,
 May Scandal plant his blackest gallows,
 And hang me in his attic stories ;
 Where the grim-phys'd Reviews exhibit
 (Fell vaticides!) their ruthless gibbet.

* 'Tories' is here used merely as a term of reproach, in which sense it was first given to the political party now bearing this appellation. In its origin it is appropriate to robbers or freebooters; being derived from the native Irish *toíec*, or give me.

Moreover, may the prince of printing
 (You well may guess him by my hinting)
 Roll up each page in sulphur-pills ;
 When from his stately chariot's wheels,
 In doctor's semblance, he bestows
 Disease and death where'er he goes.

Now, having made this adjuration,
 I find there is some slight occasion
 To seek some other method (knowing
 The mouth must still be kept a-going)
 By which, in lieu of rhymes unpleasant,
 I may carouse with Port and pheasant :
 While at my door, with hat in hand,
 Vile bards (once brothers) shivering stand ;
 And, cursing me (a proud Egyptian),
 Request his honour's least subscription.
 O friend, whose goodness plac'd me once
 Above the sneer of every dunce,
 Above the scorn of fools well-drest,
 In Hastings' generous bounty blest !
 Once more her pitying heart assail
 With youthful indiscretion's tale ;
 And bid above the viler throng,
 A princely patron grace my song.

So ends recant : by marv'lous care,
 I've clench'd it with a poet's pray'r ;
 A kind of anti-scribbling matin
 To scare the fiends of Greek and Latin :—

From notes unpaid, that make us mourn ;
 From Marshalsea's close-grated bourn,
 From whence no debtor can return ;
 From teasing countesses with letters,
 And rash intrusion on our betters ;
 From Cambrian booksellers, who scrape or
 Conceal all profits with a caper ;
 From shillings scant, that often send us
 To tasteless lords ;—good Lord, defend us !
 But if it be thy will immortal,
 Let Moira-house extend its portal ;
 Forgiving the ill-fated sinner,
 And welcome Dermody to dinner :
 And may he live at ease again,
 Its bard for ever and—Amen.

VERSES written by MRS. HUTCHINSON.

In the small Book containing her own Life, and most probably composed by her during her Husband's retirement from public business to his seat at Owthorpe, about the year 1659.]

ALL sorts of men through various labours presse
 To the same end, contented quietnesse ;
 Great princes vex their labouring thoughts to be
 Possest of an unbounded soveraignetie ;
 The hardie souldier doth all toyles susteine
 That he may conquer first, and after raigne ;
 Th' industrious merchant ploughs the angrie seas
 That he may bring home wealth, and live at ease,
 Which none of them attaine ; for sweete repose
 But seldome to the splendid pallace goes ;
 A troope of restlesse passions wander there,
 And private lives are only free from care.
 Sleep to the cottage bringeth happie nights,
 But to the court, hung round with flaring lights,
 Which th' office of the vanisht day supplie,
 His image only comes to close the eie,
 But gives the troubled mind no ease of care ;
 While countrie slumbers undisturbed are ;
 Where, if the active fancie dreames present,
 They bring no horrors to the innocent.
 Ambition doth incessantly aspire,
 And each advance leads on to new desire ;
 Nor yet can riches ay'rice satisfie,
 For want and wealth together multiplie :
 Nor can voluptuous men more fullnesse find,
 For enioy'd pleasures leave their stings behind.
 He's only rich who knows no want ; he raignes
 Whose will no severe tiranny constreins ;
 And he alone possesseth true delight
 Whose spotlesse soule no guiltie feares affright.
 This freedome in the countrie life is found,
 Where innocence and safe delights abound :
 Here man's a prince ; his subiects ne'er repine
 When on his back their wealthy fleeces shine :
 If for his appetite the fattest die,
 Those who survive will rayse no mutinie :
 His table is with home-gott dainties crown'd,
 With friends, not flatterers, encompast round ;
 No spies nor traitors on his trencher waite,
 Nor is his mirth confin'd to rules of state ;
 An armed guard he neither hath nor needs,
 Nor fears a poyson'd morsell when he feeds ;

Bright constellations hang above his head,
 Beneath his feet are flourie carpetts spred;
 The merrie birds delight him with their songs,
 And healthfull ayre his happie life prolongs.
 Att harvest merrily his flocks he sheares,
 And in cold weather their warme fleeces weares;
 Unto his ease he fashions all his clothes;
 His cup with uninfected liquor flows:
 The vulgar breath doth not his thoughts elate,
 Nor can he be o'erwhelmed by their hate;
 Yet, if ambitiously he seeks for fame,
 One village feast shall gaine a greater name
 Then his who weares th' imperiall diadem,
 Whom the rude multitude doe still condemne.
 Sweete peace and ioy his blest companions are;
 Feare, sorrow, envie, lust, revenge, and care,
 And all that troope which breed the world's offence,
 With pomp and maiestie, are banisht thence.
 What court then can such libertie afford?
 Or where is man see uncontroul'd a lord?

THE EVE OF ST. JOHN.

[From Mr. SCOTT'S BALLADS and LYRICAL PIECES.]

THE Baron of Smaylho'me rose with day,
 He spurred his courser on,
 Without-stop or stay, down the rocky way,
 That leads to Brotherstone.

He went not with the bold Buccleuch,
 His banner broad to rear;
 He went not 'gainst the English yew,
 To lift the Scottish spear.

Yet his plate-jack* was braced, and his helmet was laced,
 And his vaunt-brace of proof he wore;
 At his saddle-gerthe was a good steel sperthe,
 Full ten pound weight and more.

The Baron returned in three days space,
 And his looks were sad and sour;
 And weary was his courser's pace,
 As he reached his rocky tower.

* The plate-jack is coat armour; the vaunt-brace, or wam-brace, armour for the body; the sperthe, a battle-axe.

He came not from where Ancram Moor *
 Ran red with English blood ;
 Where the Douglas true, and the bold Buccleuch,
 'Gainst keen lord Evers stood.

Yet was his helmet hacked and hewed,
 His action pierced and tore ;
 His axe and his dagger with blood embrued,
 But it was not English gore.

He lighted at the Chapellage,
 He held him close and still ;
 And he whistled thrice for his little foot-page,
 His name was English Will.

“ Come thou hither, my little foot-page ;
 Come hither to my knee ;
 Though thou art young, and tender of age,
 I think thou art true to me.

Come, tell me all that thou hast seen,
 And look thou tell me true !
 Since I from Smaylho'me tower have been,
 What did thy lady do ?”

“ My lady, each night, sought the lonely light,
 That burns on the wild Watchfold ;
 For, from height to height, the beacons bright
 Of the English foemen told.

“ The bittern clamoured from the moss,
 The wind blew loud and shrill ;
 Yet the craggy pathway she did cross,
 To the eiry beacon hill.

“ I watched her steps, and silent came
 Where she sat her on a stone ;
 No watchman stood by the dreary flame ;
 It burned all alone.

“ The second night I kept her in sight,
 Till to the fire she came,
 And, by Mary's might ! an armed knight
 Stood by the lonely flame.

“ And many a word that warlike lord
 Did speak to my lady there ;
 But the rain fell fast, and loud blew the blast,
 And I heard not what they were.

* See an account of the battle of Ancram Moor, subjoined to the ballad.

“ The third night there the sky was fair,
And the mountain blast was still,
As again I watched the secret pair,
On the lonesome beacon hill.

“ And I heard her name the midnight hour,
And name this holy eve ;
And say, ‘ Come this night to thy lady’s bower ;
Ask no bold Baron’s leave.

“ ‘ He lifts his spear with bold Buccleuch ;
His lady is all alone ;
The door she’ll undo to her knight so true,
On the eve of good Saint John.’

„ , I cannot come ; I must not come ;
I dare not come to thee ;
On the eve of Saint John I must wander alone ;
In thy bower I may not be.’

“ ‘ Now, out on thee, faint-hearted knight !
Thou should’st not say me nay ;
For the eve is sweet, and when lovers meet,
Is worth the whole summer’s day.

“ ‘ And I’ll chain the blood-hound, and the warder shall not sound,
And rushes shall be strewed on the stair ;
So, by the black rood-stone*, and by holy St. John,
I conjure thee, my love, to be there !’

“ ‘ Though the blood-hound be mute, and the rush beneath my foot[†]
And the warder his bugle should not blow,
Yet there sleepeth a priest in the chamber to the east,
And my foot-step he would know.’

“ ‘ O fear not the priest, who sleepeth to the east !
For to Dryburgh† the way he has ta’en ;
And there to say mass, till three days do pass,
For the soul of a knight that is slayne.’

“ He turned him around, and grimly he frowned ;
Then he laughed right scornfully—
‘ He who says the mass-rite for the soul of that knight,
May as well say mass for me.

* The black rood of Melrose was a crucifix of black marble, and of superior sanctity.

† Dryburgh Abbey is beautifully situated on the banks of the Tweed. After its dissolution, it became the property of the Halliburtons of Newmains, and is now the seat of the right honourable the earl of Buchan. It belonged to the order of Premonstratenses.

“ At the lone midnight hour, when bad spirits have power,
 In thy chamber will I be.’—
 With that he was gone, and my lady left alone,
 And no more did I see.”—

Then changed, I trow, was that bold Baron’s brow,
 From the dark to the blood-red high ;

“ Now, tell me the mein of the knight thou hast seen,
 For, by Mary, he shall die !”

“ His arms shone full bright, in the beacon’s red light ;
 His plume it was scarlet and blue ;
 On his shield was a hound, in a silver leash bound,
 And his crest was a branch of the yew.”

“ Thou liest, thou liest, thou little foot-page,
 Loud dost thou lie to me !
 For that knight is cold, and low laid in the mould,
 All under the Eildon-tree*.”

“ Yet hear but my word, my noble lord !
 For I heard her name his name ;
 And that lady bright, she called the knight,
 Sir Richard of Coldinghame.”

“ The bold Baron’s brow then changed, I trow,
 From high blood-red to pale—
 The grave is deep and dark—and the corpse is stiff and stark—
 So I may not trust thy tale.

“ Where fair Tweed flows round holy Melrose,
 And Eildon slopes to the plain,
 Full three nights ago, by some secret foe,
 That gay gallant was slain.

“ The varying light deceived thy sight,
 And the wild winds drowned the name ;
 For the Dryburgh bells ring, and the white monks do sing,
 For Sir Richard of Coldinghame !”

He passed the court-gate, and he oped the tower grate,
 And he mounted the narrow stair,
 To the bartizan seat, where, with maids that on her wait,
 He found his lady fair.

* Eildon is a high hill, terminating in three conical summits, immediately above the town of Melrose, where are the admired ruins of a magnificent monastery. Eildon-tree is said to be the spot where Thomas the Rhymer uttered his prophecies.

That lady sat in mournful mood ;
 Looked over hill and dale ;
 Over Tweed's fair flood, and Mertoun's* wood,
 And all down Tiviotdale.

" Now hail, now hail, thou lady bright !"
 " Now hail, thou Baron true !
 What news, what news from Ancram fight ?
 What news from the bold Buccleuch ?"

" The Ancram Moor is red with gore,
 For many a southern fell ;
 And Buccleuch has charged us, evermore,
 To watch our beacons well."

The lady blush'd red, but nothing she said ;
 Nor added the Baron a word :
 Then she stepp'd down the stair to her chamber fair,
 And so did her moody lord.

In sleep the lady mourn'd, and the Baron toss'd and turn'd,
 And oft to himself he said—
 " The worms around him creep, and his bloody grave is deep—
 It cannot give up the dead !"

It was near the ringing of matin-bell,
 The night was well nigh done,
 When a heavy sleep on that Baron fell,
 On the eve of good St John.

The lady looked through the chamber fair,
 By the light of a dying flame ;
 And she was aware of a knight stood there—
 Sir Richard of Coldinghame !

" Alas ! away, away !" she cried,
 " For the holy Virgin's sake !"
 " Lady, I know who sleeps by thy side ;
 But, lady, he will not awake.

" By Eildon-tree, for long nights three,
 In bloody grave have I lain ;
 The mass and the death-prayer are said for me,
 But, lady, they are said in vain.

" By the Baron's brand, near Tweed's fair strand,
 Most foully slain I fell ;
 And my restless sprite on the beacon's height,
 For a space is doomed to dwell.

* Mertoun is the beautiful seat of Hugh Scott, Esq. of Harden.

“ At our trysting-place *, for a certain space,
 I must wander to and fro ;
 But I had not had power to come to thy bower,
 Had'st thou not conjured me so.”

Love mastered fear—her brow she crossed ;
 “ How, Richard, hast thou sped ?
 And art thou saved, or art thou lost ?”—
 The Vision shood his head !

“ Who spilleth life, shall forfeit life ;
 So bid thy lord believe :
 That lawless love is guilt above,
 This awful sign receive.”

He laid his left palm on an oaken beam ;
 His right upon her hand :
 The lady shrunk, and fainting sunk,
 For it scorched like a fiery brand.

The sable score, of fingers four,
 Remains on that board impressed ;
 And for evermore that lady wore
 A covering on her wrist.

There is a Nun in Dryburgh bower,
 Ne'er looks upon the sun :
 There is a Monk in Melrose tower,
 He speaketh word to none.

That Nun, who ne'er beholds the day,
 That Monk, who speaks to none—
 That Nun was Smaylho'me's Lady gay,
 The Monk the bold Baron.

The BIRDS of SCOTLAND.

[From Mr. GRAHAME'S POEMS.]

HOW sweet the first sound of the cuckoo's note !—
 Whence is the magic pleasure of the sound ?
 How do we long recal the very tree,
 Or bush, near which we stood, when on the ear
 The unexpected note, *cuckoo* ! again,
 And yet again, came down the budding vale ?
 It is the voice of spring among the trees ;
 It tells of lengthening days, of coming blooms ;
 It is the symphony of many a song.

* *Trysting-place*—place of rendezvous.

But, there, the stranger flies close to the ground,
 With hawklike pinion, of a leaden blue.
 Poor wanderer ! from hedge to hedge she flies,
 And trusts her offspring to another's care :
 The sooty-plum'd hedge-sparrow frequent acts
 The foster-mother, warming into life
 The youngling, destined to supplant her own.
 Meanwhile, the cuckoo sings her idle song,
 Monotonous, yet sweet, now here, now there,
 Herself but rarely seen ; nor does she cease
 Her changeless note, until the broom, full blown,
 Give warning, that her time for flight is come.
 Thus, ever journeying on, from land to land,
 She, sole of all the innumerable feathered tribes,
 Passes a stranger's life, without a home.

Home ! word delightful to the heart of man,
 And bird, and beast !—small word, yet not the less
 Significant :—Comprising all !
 Whatever to affection is most dear,
 Is all included in that little word,—
 Wife, children, father, mother, brother, friend.
 At mention of that word, the seaman, clinging
 Upon the dipping yard-arm, sees afar
 The twinkling fire, round which his children cower,
 And speak of him, counting the months, and weeks,
 That must pass dreary o'er, ere he return.
 He sighs to view the sea-bird's rapid wing.

O, had I but the envied power to chuse
 My home, no sound of city bell should reach
 My ear ; not even the cannon's thundering roar.
 Far in a vale, be there my low abode,
 Embowered in woods where many a songster chaunts
 And let me now indulge the airy dream !
 A bow-shot off in front a river flows,
 That, during summer drought, shallow and clear,
 Chides with its pebbly bed, and, murmuring,
 Invites forgetfulness ; half hid it flows,
 Now between rocks, now through a bush-girt glade,
 Now sleeping in a pool, that laves the roots
 Of overhanging trees, whose drooping boughs
 Dip midway over in the darkened stream ;
 While ever and anon, upon the breeze,
 The dash of distant waterfall is borne.
 A range of hills, with craggy summits crowned,
 And furrowed deep, with many a bosky cleugh,
 Wards off the northern blast : There skims the hawk
 Forth from her cliff, eyeing the furzy slope
 That joins the mountain to the smiling vale.

Through

Through all the woods the holly evergreen,
 And laurel's softer leaf, and ivied thorn,
 Lend winter shelter to the shivering wing.
 No gravelled paths, pared from the smooth-shaved turf,
 Wind through these woods; the simple unmade road,
 Marked with the frequent hoof of sheep or kine,
 Or rustic's studded shoe, I love to tread.
 No threatening board forewarns the homeward hind,
 Of man-traps, or of law's more dreaded gripe.
 Pleasant to see the labourer homeward hie
 Light-hearted, as he thinks his hastening steps
 Will soon be welcomed by his children's smile!
 Pleasant to see the milkmaid's blythesome look,
 As to the trysting thorn she gaily trips,
 With steps that scarcely feel the elastic ground!
 Nor be the lowly dwellings of the poor
 Thrust to a distance, as unseemly sights.
 Curse on the heartless taste that, proud, exclaims,
 "Erase the hamlet, sweep the cottage off;
 Remove each stone, and only leave behind
 The trees that once embowered the wretched huts.
 What though the inmates old, who hoped to end
 Their days below these trees, must seek a home,
 Far from their native fields, far from the graves
 In which their fathers lie,—to city lanes,
 Darksome and close, exiled? It must be so;
 The wide-extending lawn would else be marred,
 By objects so incongruous." Barbarous taste!
 Stupidity intense! Yon straw-roofed cot,
 Seen through the elms, it is a lovely sight!
 That scattered hamlet, with its burn-side green,
 On which the thrifty housewife spreads her yarn,
 Or half-bleached web, while children busy play,
 And paddle in the stream,—for every heart,
 Untainted by pedantic rules, hath charms.

I love the neighbourhood of man and beast:
 I would not place my stable out of sight.
 No; close behind my dwelling, it should form
 A fence, on one side, to my garden plat.
 What beauty equals shelter, in a clime
 Where wintry blasts with summer breezes blend,
 Chilling the day! How pleasant 't is to hear
 December's winds, amid surrounding trees,
 Raging aloud! how grateful 't is to wake,
 While raves the midnight storm, and hear the sound
 Of busy grinders at the well-filled rack;
 Or flapping wing, and crow of chanticleer,
 Long ere the lingering morn; or bouncing flails,
 That tell the dawn is near! Pleasant the path

By sunny garden-wall, when all the fields
Are chill and comfortless ; or barn-yard snug,
Where flocking birds, of various plume, and chirp
Discordant, cluster on the leaning stack,
From whence the thresher draws the rustling sheaves.

O, Nature ! all thy seasons please the eye
Of him who sees a Deity in all.
It is His presence that diffuses charms
Unspeakable, o'er mountain, wood, and stream.
To think that He, who hears the heavenly choirs,
Hearkens complacent to the woodland song ;
To think that He, who rolls yon solar sphere,
Uplifts the warbling songster to the sky ;
To mark His presence in the mighty bow,
That spans the clouds, as in the tints minute
Of humblest flower ; to hear His awful voice
In thunder-speak, and whisper in the gale ;
To know, and feel His care for all that lives ;—
'T is this that makes the barren waste appear
A fruitful field, each grove a paradise.
Yes ! place me 'mid far stretching woodless wilds,
Where no sweet song is heard ; the heath-bell there
Would soothe my weary sight, and tell of Thee !
There would my gratefully uplifted eye
Survey the heavenly vault, by day,—by night,
When glows the firmament from pole to pole ;
There would my overflowing heart exclaim,
The heavens declare the glory of the Lord,
The firmament shews forth his bandy work !

Less loud, but not less clear, His humbler works
Proclaim His power ; the swallow knows her time,
And, on the vernal breezes, wings her way,
O'er mountain, plain, and far-extending seas,
From Afric's torrid sands to Britain's shore.
Before the cuckoo's note, she, twittering, gay,
Skims o'er the brook, or skiffs the greenwood tops,
When dance the midgy clouds in warping maze
Confused : 't is thus, by her, the air is swept
Of insect myriads, that would else infest
The greenwood walk, blighting each rural joy :
For this,—if pity plead in vain—O, spare
Her clay-built home ! Her all, her young, she trusts,
Trusts to the power of man : fearful, *herself*
She never trusts ; free, the long summer morn,
She, at his window, hails the rising sun.—
Twice seven days she broods ; then on the wing,
From morn to dewy eve, unceasing plies,
Save when she feeds or cherishes her young ;

And

And oft she's seen, beneath her little porch,
Clinging supine, to deal the air-gleaned food.

From her the husbandman the coming shower
Foretells: Along the mead closely she skiffs,
Or o'er the streamlet pool she skims, so near,
That, from her dipping wing, the wavy circlets
Spread to the shore: then fall the single drops,
Prelusive of the shower.

The MARTINS, too,
The dwellers in the ruined castle wall,
When low'rs the sky a flight less lofty wheel:
Presageful of the thunder peal, when deep
A boding silence broods o'er all the vale,
From airy altitudes they stoop, and fly
Swiftly, with shrillest scream, round and around
The rugged battlements; or fleetly dart
Through loopholes, whence the shaft was wont to glance;
Or thrid the window of the lofty bower,
Where hapless royalty, with care-closed eyes,
Woo'd sleep in vain, foreboding what befel,—
The loss of friends, of country, freedom, life!

Long ere the wintry gusts, with chilly sweep,
Sigh through the leafless groves, the swallow tribes,
Heaven-warned, in airy bevvies congregate,
Or clustering sit, as if in deep consult
What time to launch; but, lingering, they wait
Until the feeble of the latest broods
Have gathered strength, the sea-ward path to brave.
At last the farewell twitter spreading sounds;
Aloft they fly, and melt in distant air.
Far o'er the British sea, in westering course,
O'er the Biscayan mountain-waves they glide:
Then o'er Iberian plains, through fields of air,
Perfumed by orchard groves, where lowly bends
The orange bough beneath its juicy load,
Thence over Calpe's thunder-shielded rock
They stretch their course to Mauritania's plains.

There are who doubt this migratory flight.
But wherefore, from the distance of the way,
Should wonder verge on disbelief,—the bulk
So small, the buoyant wing so large and strong?

Behold the CORN-CRAIK; she, too, wings her way
To other lands: ne'er is she found immersed
In lakes, or buried torpid in the sand,
Though weak her wing contrasted with her bulk.
Seldom she rises from the grassy field,

And

And never till compelled ; and, when upraised,
 With feet suspended, awkwardly she flies ;
 Her flight a ridge-breadth : suddenly she drops,
 And, running, still eludes the following foot.

Poor bird, though harsh thy note, I love it well !
 It tells of summer eves, mild and serene,
 When through the grass, waist-deep, I went to wade
 In fruitless chace of thee ; now here, now there,
 Thy desultory call. Oft does thy call
 The midnight silence break ; oft, ere the dawn,
 It wakes the slumbering lark ; he upward wings
 His misty way, and, viewless, sings and soars.

A POETICAL TRIBUTE to the MEMORY of LORD NELSON ;

Inscribed, to the Honourable CHARLES GREY.

[By Mr. PERCIVAL STOCKDALE.]

NELSON, with all the patriot's ardour fired,
 Like our great Wolfe, in Victory's arms expired.
 Triumphant Calpe, on the hostile shore,
 Heard the last thunder of his cannon roar ;
 Firm as our hero, with a proud disdain,
 It claimed our empire o'er the land, and main.

Oft had he suffered for his country's good ;
 His laurels oft took vigour from his blood ;
 Where'er our fleets unfurled their prosperous sails,
 His glory flew with as propitious gales.

May thy illustrious deeds, in History's page,
 With dignity be told, to every age ;
 May, to present thee to admiring eyes,
 A Dionysius, or a Livy rise !

Shall feeble age endeavour to throw forth
 Some strong ideas, to express thy worth ?

Though long the British flag hath ruled the sea,
 Its bravest heroes were excelled by thee ;
 The shades of Hawke, and of Boscawen shine
 With fainter glories, when compared with thine.
 This praise to a new height exalts thy name ;
 Thus, on the *summit* placed, of human fame.

DOMESTIC LITERATURE

Of the Year 1806.

CHAPTER I.

BIBLICAL AND THEOLOGICAL.

Comprising Biblical Criticism ; Theological Criticism ; Sacred Morals ; Sermons ; Single Sermons ; Controversial Divinity.

THE only biblical version that has made its appearance within the range of our present limits is "The Apocalypse or Revelation of St. John, translated ; with Notes critical and explanatory ; by John Chappel Woodhouse, M. A. Archdeacon of Salop. 8vo." This version is introduced by our author's Dissertation on the Divine Origin of the Apocalypse, which he published about four years ago, in reply to the objections of professor Michaelis ; and which, having then cursorily noticed, we shall have the less occasion to enlarge upon at present. With regard to the translation, we can truly affirm that it is faithfully and most correctly executed ; in reality, we had almost said it is executed somewhat too faithfully ; for, while in every language there is an idiom and grammatical construction characteristic of itself, and incapable, without great uncouthness and violence, of being extended to any other, there is a constant endeavour, in the version before us, to give, not only the minutest phrasings, but the

1806.

whole series of the accident and syntax of the original, without the omission of scarcely a single particle or government : whence the greater number of the pages are so loaded with Grecisms, as not only to exhibit considerable inelegance, but, in many instances, to be altogether unintelligible to the mere English reader. The arrangement is in three columns ; the middle consisting of Griesbach's text, which is that our author has chosen as his standard ; the new version occupying the one side of it, and the common English lection the other." With the latter we might certainly have dispensed, if not with the former ; for we are confident there is not a single house into which the present version will ever enter, that will be found destitute of the vernacular text ; and to tag on to an original work, a work that is already in the hands of every one, is rather to evince a specimen of the art of book-making than the art of criticism. The explanatory notes are numerous, well applied, and for the

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the most part satisfactory. The introductory dissertation, as we have just observed, has already made its appearance in a detached form; the object of which is to give a new and different interpretation of this mystical book from any that has hitherto been advanced; as also to inquire into its genuineness, and to indicate its author. Respecting the Apocalypse there are three important questions, which, to this hour, remain in a greater or less degree undecided, notwithstanding all the attempts that have been made to settle them in a satisfactory and incontrovertible manner. The first is, at what period was it written? the second, who was its author? and the third, to what æra do its prophecies apply? In regard to the first question, however, if we cannot answer it definitively, we can at least make a pretty near approach towards such a desideratum: for we know it to have been in existence in the second century of the Christian epoch, from the concurrent testimony of not less than twelve of the fathers of that period, who are here produced as actually quoting or referring to it, of whom it may be sufficient to mention Irenæus, Athenagoras, and Origen. The name of the author is John; but whether the evangelist, or a name-sake of the evangelist, is a point which admits of much doubt. There is a single passage in Eusebius, H. E. iii. 18, which has generally been appealed to in proof of its having been the production of the evangelist, and written towards the close of the reign of Domitian, in which case the evangelist must have been between ninety and a hundred years old; but unfortunately this passage is capable of another interpretation;

while in other parts of his writings Eusebius himself appears to have been undecided upon the subject; and in regard to the genuineness of the book (of which there could be no doubt had it proceeded demonstrably from the pen of St. John), he represents the matter as a controverted point, and promises, what unhappily he never performed, further information "when it shall be settled by the testimony of the ancients." There are hence some doubts whether the Apocalypse were admitted in the second and beginning of the third century of the church into the class of books termed *ὁμολογούμενοι*, those universally read and admitted to be genuine, or transferred to the *νόθοι*, the spurious or apocryphal—those whose authenticity or divine inspiration was incapable of proof, but which might be usefully perused, as containing pious sentiments and apostolical doctrines. Yet, as by many, and perhaps by most of the Christian fathers of the ages immediately subsequent, several of the books denominated by Eusebius *νόθοι* or apocryphal (which included the Epistles of James and Jude, the second of Peter, the second and third of John, the Acts of Paul, the Shepherd of Hermas, the Epistle of Barnabas, and the Institutes (*Διδαχαι*) of the Apostles,) were admitted and appealed to as authentic, it cannot be wondered at that no question could be entertained of the propriety of regarding the Apocalypse in the same character; more especially as Eusebius himself, notwithstanding his doubts, was inclined to enter this book from the first into the class of the *ὁμολογούμενοι*, along with the four Histories of the Evangelists, the Epistles of St. Paul, the first Epistle

Epistle of John, and the first of Peter—ἐπὶ τούτοις τάχτεον, says he, εἰγε ΦΑΝΕΙΗ Αποκάλυψιν Ἰωαννοῦ. Hence the church is perfectly justified in continuing it in its canon, and our expositors in endeavouring to decipher and interpret its meaning.

The most difficult question of all is, to what epoch does the Apocalypse immediately apply, and what are the events it is intended to predict? That the chain of these events has *commenced*, is doubted by no one who admits its divine inspiration; the only subject of dispute being, whether they be wholly accomplished, or merely in a train of fulfilment; whether the “things which must come to pass in a short time,” the expressions “I come quickly,” and “the time (of accomplishment) is at hand,” refer to the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and the general propagation and triumph of the gospel at the period in question: or whether, independently of this, as an individual series of facts, they embrace also such additional series as the origin of Mohammedism, the origin and downfall of Popery, the French revolution, and other events of the present day, together with the final restoration of the Jews? Upon all these subjects so various have been the opinions advanced, and so plausibly and with such opposite arguments supported, that we confess ourselves to be totally incapable of forming a decision. All we know and all we feel is, that, as well in the imagery as in the spirit, there is a solemn awe and grandeur which have never been surpassed, perhaps never equalled, in any production, whether sacred or profane, and which seem best to be exemplified by supposing an union of the sublimity of

Isaiah with the mystical majesty and magnificence of Ezekiel. The theory before us extends the chain of predictions in the Apocalypse to the entire history of the Christian church. Our author conceives the first three chapters to relate to the state of the gospel in Asia, about the time of the publication of the book, and this part of his arrangement he denominates *ἡ εἰσὲ*. The four ensuing chapters he applies to the subsequent epochs of the church, which he extends to its final consummation; and this department he entitles *ἡ μελλεῖ γενεσθαι*. These four chapters, and the events they pre-figure, fill up the imagery of the first six seals. The successive sounding of the trumpets, and effusion from the vials, which follow progressively, are merely auxiliary scenes, and repeat in minuter detail some of the more important transactions, which are but rapidly glanced at in the prior and more general sketch. Here, as in most other theories, the great Babylon is the usurpation of the Vatican, whose fall, as usual, is supposed to be typified by the captivity of the great dragon; immediately after which our author commences his Millennium. Yet, contrary to the bulk of our interpreters, he supposes another apostasy, and of a peculiar kind, after the epoch of the Millennium, in which the enemies of the church are to be incalculably numerous and formidable. Upon this epoch, however, he speaks with some hesitation; yet he describes it as the last powerful effort of Satan against the church, and the prelude to his *eternal* imprisonment. The general judgment succeeds, and the sublime mythos closes with the appropriate reward of the good, and punishment of the wicked.

We have dwelt the longer upon this subject, because it seems to have been the favourite and leading pursuit of our biblical critics throughout the whole of the year before us; and because not less than eight or ten other publications upon the same point have actually issued from the press. Of these the chief are Mr. Faber's "Dissertation on the Prophecies that have been fulfilled, are now fulfilling, or will hereafter be fulfilled, relative to the great Period of Twelve hundred and sixty Years, &c." in two volumes, 8vo; Mr. Whitaker's "Letter—occasioned by some Passages in the Rev. G. S. Faber's Dissertation on the Prophecies;" Mr. Faber's "Supplement—containing a full Reply to the—Rev. E. W. Whitaker;" Mr. Butt's "Revelation of St. John, compared with itself and the rest of Scripture;" Mr. Kett's new edition of his "History the Interpreter of Prophecy, with additional Notes;" and Mr. Bicheno's "Destiny of the German Empire; or an Attempt to ascertain the Apocalyptic Dragon, and the Millenary State." Upon these we shall offer a few words; nor need they be otherwise than few after the comprehensive view we have just taken of the subject at large. Mr. Faber endeavours to assimilate the prophecies of Daniel and of the Apocalypse; and believes that, in the former, as well as the latter, the progress both of Popery and Mohammedism is referred to *seriatim*, as well as their ultimate overthrow—that the duration of both, as prefigured by the Jewish as well as by the evangelical prophet, is to embrace an epoch of 1260 years, commencing from the year 606 of our own reckoning; that towards the close of this epoch a third power peculiarly characterized

as atheistical, or indifferent to all religions, is likewise to make its appearance; which, notwithstanding some temporary triumph it may have to boast of, will also be destroyed, in conjunction with the other two powers, at the termination of this grand æra; that Palestine will be the glorious scene of the triple defeat—and that the restoration of the Jews to the country of their forefathers will immediately commence. This theory carries upon the first blush of it, an intimation that the present moment is the direct point of its consummation: that the atheistic or infidel power is the French revolution, and that the Hebrew restoration may be already foreseen from the interest which Bonaparte has lately discovered in regard to a concentration of this dispersed and rejected people. Our expositor is, in some cases, extremely minute, and undertakes to discover not only the year, but even the month, week, and day, in which many of the prophetic visions have been fulfilled. Thus he tells us that the third woe-trumpet began its tremendous blast on August 12, 1792; and that on the 26th of the same month the first vial was poured forth. According to the calculation before us, some few of our readers, perhaps of our own corps, may yet live to see the first glancings of the Millennium, which is to commence in about thirty or forty years: the restoration of the Jews is to take place in about ten years afterwards, who are to be escorted to Palestine by a *great maritime power*—most probably that of England—when the reign of the saints on earth will begin, and continue through the enormous revolution of not less than *three hundred and sixty thousand years!!!*——We have some scruple, we confess, as

to this calculation: but our author is so great an adept *at figures*, that we dare not throw down the gauntlet in opposition to him.

Yet the difficulty we dare not undertake has been actually encountered by Mr. Whitaker, a veteran in the cause, it must be acknowledged, and whose theory it has been Mr. Faber's endeavour, in a great degree, to subvert. Mr. Whitaker, whose uniform object it has been to turn the attention of Protestants to the tyranny and downfall of Popery almost exclusively, and to deny to Bonaparte and to infidel France the honour of any concern in the prophetic history, has principally rebutted his assailant upon this last point: and Mr. Faber in his "Reply" admits "that I have frequently expressed myself too positively respecting the proper *date* of the 1260 years." Yet he still thinks that their most probable commencement is in 606 of the Christian epoch. Being doubtful, however, of the date, which is the foundation of all his calculations, he ought consequently to have been doubtful of every thing, as every derived application must inevitably rest upon this fact: yet it is too much to relinquish the whole of a favourite hypothesis, and Mr. Faber still contends that the grand outlines of his exposition remain unshaken; being more desirous of the character of a blind and doting father, than of an accurate and impartial judge.

Mr. Butt appears to regard this sublime mythos as an allegorical history of modern Europe; and, in his view of the subject, there are certain chapters contained in it, as the eighteenth, for example, that typify every event as minutely as they will be found in Hume or Macaulay—in some verses of which he

undertakes to decipher the very names of Rousseau, Voltaire, Gibbon, and Weishaupt. He commences the first rudiments of his Millennium with the revolution, by which the complete subversion of the Papal power is to be ultimately accomplished.

Of Mr. Kett it is sufficient to observe, that in this new edition of his work on prophecy, he has taken the opportunity of enlarging it by some additional notes in support of the theory he has formerly thought proper to advance.

In Mr. Bicheno we have a bolder performer than in any who have hitherto appeared on the Apocalyptic stage. With this author the old red dragon is the late continental regime—and Bonaparte, the grand hero who has triumphed over him; thus handsomely counterbalancing the incivility of Mr. Faber. Like Mr. Butt, Mr. Bicheno, too, conceives that the age of the Millennium has actually commenced: but while the first of these three expositors extends its duration, after some such arithmetical table as that of Daniel, to three hundred and sixty thousand years, the last, like our modern interpreters of the Indian avatars, sconces it of upwards of three hundred and fifty thousand nine hundred and eighty of these three hundred and sixty thousand years, and reduces it to something less than *twenty* years in the whole; so that, as the Millennium has already commenced for two or three lustres, if we do not look carefully about us, it will soon slip through our fingers without our being aware of its existence. We are not disposed to turn matters of this kind into ridicule; but while we behold them so variously, and in some instances so absurdly treated, we cannot be surprised, nor even very angry, at the

tempt which was made, and with high success, only a few years ago, to prove, in a very humorous and satirical poem, entitled *The Millennium*, the commencement of this long expected epoch at the present period, from the discoveries and blessings of jacobinism, illuminism, and the unquestionable progress towards what was lately called perfectibility in regard to Europe at large;—and in regard to our own country, from our facility of acquiring domestic enjoyments, and the cheapness of our provisions—from our increased charities and public soup-shops—the universal display amongst us of prodigality and contempt of wealth—equality of affluence—community of property through the medium of sharpers, shop-lifters, swindlers, and other general agents and negotiators—from our daily display of domestic virtue and happiness—and the vast and miraculous progress amongst us of religion, public virtue, patriotism, and political honesty.

“God and the King!” the universal roar
From utmost Shetland to the Cambrian
shore;

“God and the king!” the bounding hills
reply;

This the sole vow—to conquer or to die.”

But we proceed to subjects more comprehensible and practical. Dr. Holmes, whose collation of the *Septuagint*, so far as it has yet been published, we spoke of with no small degree of approbation in our last year's *Retrospect*, has since yielded to the common lot of mortality; but he has left the world one or two legacies which we trust will long endear his memory to posterity. He lived long enough to complete his collation of the *Septuagint*, and we have no doubt that the remaining part of this

work will be soon published by those to whose superintendence he has committed it. We are now, however, particularly called to a posthumous production of his already presented to the public, entitled “*Treatises on Religion and Scriptural Subjects*,” in one large octavo volume. The whole of these, indeed, have formerly appeared under different shapes and designations; but generally in a cast so fugitive that we cannot but approve of the pious direction of the author, as expressed in his will, that they should be collected and arranged in their present and more permanent form, exhibiting a more accurate division, and affording greater facility of reference. “The first, third, fifth, and sixth of these treatises, together with the discourse on Humility, were published in one volume 8vo. in the year 1788. The second treatise was printed in the year 1801, under the title of ‘*A Manual of Reflections on the Facts of Revelation*.’ The fourth treatise, ‘*On the Prophecies and Testimony of John the Baptist, and the Parallel Prophecies of Jesus Christ*,’ originally appeared in the form of Sermons preached before the University of Oxford, at the Bampton Lecture, in the year 1782. It is now re-printed, with such alterations and corrections as had been made by the author himself in a copy which he left prepared for the press. The discourse entitled ‘*The Resurrection of the Body, deduced from the Resurrection of Christ, and illustrated from his Transfiguration*,’ was preached before the University of Oxford, and first published in 4to, in the year 1787.” Upon the whole, this last treatise, in its present shape, is the most interesting in the collection; it displays much reading, great

great readiness of composition, and a sound and accurate judgment.

“An Attempt to display the original Evidences of Christianity in their genuine Simplicity, by M. Nisbett, A. M. Rector of Tunstall,” 8vo. p. 204. This is a plain and instructive work, and will by no means discredit the author's anterior publications. The present writer, like the late Mr. Cappe, as well as many other biblical critics of modern times, refers the predicted approach of the kingdom of heaven in glory to the destruction of the Jewish hierarchy, and the triumphant propagation of the gospel over every quarter of the world: believing that they hereby resist most successfully the sneers of Mr. Gibbon and other infidel writers, who continue to ridicule the prophetic annunciation, by asserting that it has not yet taken place, notwithstanding the solemn assertion that these grand and solemn events were at hand even in the life-time of our Saviour;—and by insinuating that the Christian church is compelled to refer the whole of them, speedily as it was foretold that they would make their appearance, to the end of the world and the great consummation of all things. In conjunction with this view of our Saviour's prophecies and of the Apocalypse, Mr. Nisbett, with a laudable uniformity of system, applies St. Paul's man of sin to the Jewish church, rather than to that of modern Rome.

“An Historical View of Christianity, containing select Passages from Scripture: with a Commentary by the late Edward Gibbon, Esq. and Notes by the late Lord Bolingbroke, M. de Voltaire and others,” 4to. p. 135. A book in favour of Christianity from a body

of writers of this description may well startle our readers, till the mystery is explained. The most exalted system of ethics, as well as the simplest and purest code of religion, that has ever been offered to mankind, is to be found in the Christian scriptures. Infidels, who have seldom made any scruple of adverting to every system and to every code, whenever it has had a chance of answering some particular object they have been in pursuit of, have, on this account, not unfrequently turned to the sacred pages, and the earlier history of the Christian church, in a strain of the highest approbation and eulogy. Yet the instances are by far too numerous, in which they have pretended to praise with the mere view of being thought impartial, while a spirit of the keenest ridicule or sarcasm has pervaded every sentence of the hollow panegyric. It is from such passages that the anonymous writer before us has drawn up a volume, in which many of the arch-enemies of the Christian faith are depicted as its warm and genuine apologists. But to have executed such a work with complete success, requires a greater degree both of taste and discernment than are here exhibited. To convict an adversary by the words of his own mouth, is one of the most decisive triumphs we can obtain—but it becomes us to take care that the words we appeal to have no double meaning, and that they have been altogether confined to their primary or most obvious construction. In the volume before us we are afraid that this is not always the fact: there is an artfulness in many of the selected passages, which should have induced our author to have rejected them as of a very suspicious tendency, to speak of

them in the most complimentary terms' *Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes*, is a motto he should have had more frequently in his mind. Upon the whole, we are better pleased with the intention than with the execution of this tessellated testimony. It consists of five chapters: of which the first is entitled The progress of the Christian religion; the second treats of Polytheism; the third is devoted to the spirit of Christianity; the fourth, to the persecutions of the Christians; and the fifth, to the state of the Jews, and their dispersion. Every chapter consists first of a certain number of texts of scripture, occupying the upper part of the page: below which follows the commentary, extracted from Mr. Gibbon's *Fall and Decline* in a kind of regular series; and lowest of all a variety of notes from works of a similar tendency, and import, conducing to the same point.

The very excellent bishop of London has again exerted his pen in the cause of our holy religion, so near to his heart and so familiar to his understanding. In a small octavo volume, entitled "*The beneficial Effects of Christianity on the temporal Concerns of Mankind proved from History and from Facts*," he has revived and given additional spirit and popularity to the argument that the general melioration of mankind in the present age, and progressively, from the first introduction of Christianity into the world, is to be ascribed solely to this beneficent institution. That the purest systems of philosophy, the most amiable manners of the best inclined savages, the aggregate learning and accomplishments of Greece and Rome, never *did* conduct to the admirable and harmonious system of morals most

strictly inculcated, and actually and universally produced, by the gospel, wherever it has been professed in its purity—and that hence it is but fair to conclude, that such causes never *would* nor *could* conduct to such effects. The learned prelate peculiarly alludes to domestic chastity, the parental relations, the condition of servants, the mitigation of the common horrors of war, and the total abolition of human sacrifices.

We have often had occasion to observe, that one injudicious friend to a cause is frequently more injurious to it than a host of open and undisguised enemies: and we are compelled to repeat this remark in consequence of Mr. Geo. Nicholson's "*New, clear, and concise Vindication of the Holy Scriptures*," than which we have never seen a work replete with arguments more hackneyed and worn out instead of new, more cloudy instead of clear, or more cumbrous instead of concise. The only consolation that remains to us is, that the book can produce but little mischief, because it is sure of being but little read. Mr. Nicholson may have thought it an act of duty in him to publish this *Vindication*: we are afraid, however, that his sin of commission is heavier than would have been his sin of omission if he had let it alone.

"*Further Evidences of the Existence of the Deity*: by George Clark," 8vo. pp. 46. This little tract is "*intended as an humble supplement to archdeacon Paley's Natural Theology*;" and, though here denominated a *supplement*, was in fact written before the publication of Dr. Paley's work. Our readers cannot but recollect that the object of the *Natural Theology* is to infer intention and design from

from the general mechanism and evidences of art apparent in the animal frame—an intelligent cause from an effect evincing intelligence. Mr. Clark proceeds one step further, and from the nature of the *genus* of an animal adverts to the nature of the *gender*, attempting “to show prospectively, from the constitution of the sexes, and the formation of the first individual of each species of animals, that there must have been a pre-cogitation, a previous intention, a pre-ordination; to show from the formation of one of the sexes, that a pre-supposal of the certain future formation of the other sex must then have existed: and that, upon atheistic principles, it was impossible, even if an animal of one sex had been fortuitously produced, that another co-ordinate and correspondent animal of the other sex could have been so produced as to have perpetuated the species; and finally to show that this impossibility attaches to, and is multiplied in, every instance of the formation of sexes, in all the species of animals which have been produced.” The argument, as a branch of the general principle advanced by Dr. Paley, has its individual force, and is here ably maintained, and done justice to.

Mr. Warner of Bath has applied his indefatigable pen to a new edition of the book of Common Prayer, &c. introduced by various disquisitions, upon the whole not unentertainingly drawn up; comprising a history of the English liturgy; a sketch of the Reformation in England; and a view of the English translation of the Holy Scriptures. He has moreover accompanied the calendar, rubrics, services, and book of psalms, with many useful notes historical, explanatory, and illustrative.

Mr. Bates, who is also indefatigable in his pen, has now added to his “Rural and Christian’s Philosophy” a volume of “Christian Politics;” and he is still entitled to our attention and even to our thanks. His present work is divided into four parts: the first comprehends a view of civil government in its influence on virtue and happiness, chiefly in the relation it bears to liberty and property: the second descants upon the importance of religion, both to society and the individual, with reflections on religious establishments and toleration; towards the close of which he concludes “*on the whole*, that an establishment with a toleration, especially when the toleration is complete,” is the best plan that can be devised for maintaining purity of religious worship. Our author, in his third part, points out the conduct of a good citizen under any moderate government, and advances a code of regulations that may enable him to preserve such a character. The concluding part teaches us “the way to live happily under all governments and in all situations;” the foundation of which is laid in peace of conscience and holy and well regulated affections. We have been pleased with this work in no ordinary degree, though we honestly confess it possesses less spirit and entertainment than our author’s Rural Philosophy.

“The Temple of Truth; or the best System of Reason, Philosophy, Virtue and Morals, analytically arranged.” This system the writer before us, who calls himself *Parresiastes*, and dedicates his pages “to the illustrious author of the Pursuits of Literature,” affirms to be “the oracles of the living God;” and the *temple* here presented he undertakes

undertakes to assert roundly is "erected upon that basis which the divine architect himself has laid in his own oracles:" and intoxicated with the same self-sufficiency, he adds, towards the close of his work, "it will be acknowledged, he hopes, that he has erected a basis with artless simplicity; that its basis is the very foundation which infinite wisdom itself has laid; that it is disfigured by no needless ornaments; that it is illuminated only by the beams of "the sun of righteousness;" and that nothing has been proclaimed in it but the riches and the glory of divine grace." Yet we have met with intoxications far more diseased and infinitely more grovelling. The builder of the temple before us, whimsical and filled with conceit as is its outline, is a skilful planner and an excellent reasoner; his intimate acquaintance with the scriptures of the New Testament in their original we highly approve, nor have we any great objection to "the nine great arches upon which is erected and elevated this temple of truth;" we can walk in the portico and admire its symmetry and elegance; but when admitted into the interior of the building, there are various detached parts of which it is composed that we would wish to see removed, and which unquestionably, in our opinion, neither add to its strength nor to its ornament. Those who are fond of the *porch* of Calvinism, and have long and cordially frequented it as students, may walk in and partake of the esoteric exhortations here prepared for them, with high mental satisfaction; it is their own fault if they be not soon discharged with the diploma of *γνησιοὶ ὁμιληταί*, or *genuine and approved disciples*.

We proceed to the class of Ser-

mons; and shall have to notice several publications under this division, which are certainly capable of maintaining the credit of our national pulpit oratory. We commence with Mr. Van Mildert's "Historical View of the Rise and Progress of Infidelity, with a Refutation of its Principles and Reasonings; in a Series of Sermons preached for the Lecture founded by the Hon. Mr. Boyle, in the Parish-church of St. Mary le Bow, from the Year 1802 to 1805." 2 vols. 8vo. This excellent institution has of late years been almost entirely overlooked, although for upwards of half a century the lecture was continued with little intermission, and, as early as the year 1739, the various discourses which were judged worthy of being presented to the public extended to a collection that filled three large folio volumes. Of late years, however, the last sermon that was conceived to be entitled to a similar distinction was preached and printed in 1783. Yet between this date and the present, the world has been more endangered than ever by the dispersion of infidel and atheistic principles; by those of illuminism and cosmopolitanism in Germany; of revived paganism in France, with all the rites, ceremonies, and annual festivals of the Dea Mater; by systems of wild and incoherent *perfectibility* in all countries, but especially in our own, where also we have been tormented with *Ages of reason*, and new dreams of *Platonism*, many of which absurdities and abominations have been purposely dressed up in language and ideas peculiarly calculated to attract the multitude: while not a single warning *voice* has been heard, throughout the whole extent of this period, beyond the range of Bow church walls,

nor often, we are afraid, to any very great effect within their limit. Mr. Van Mildert, therefore, may well commence his subject, as in fact he does, in a manner that would seem to intimate that the whole was new and untrodden ground from the first moment of a revelation of any kind. Regarding all the discourses already delivered, and the volumes already published upon the subject before him, as long since obsolete and forgotten, he feels it necessary to step back so far as to the æra of Moses and the prophets, and to clear away in some degree the rubbish of Jewish as well as of Gentile sceptics, by an *historical* retrospect of biblical truth *à parte ante*, before the argumentative division of his subject, its individual proofs and intrinsic excellence, can be adduced with their appropriate force and lustre. "In the first part of these lectures, therefore," says he, "it is my design to take a summary view of the endeavours made to counteract the revealed will of God, in the times antecedent to the Christian dispensation; then to show the perverseness of both Jews and Gentiles in their rejection of the gospel, and their various efforts to overthrow it from the time of our Lord's personal appearance on earth to the downfall of paganism in the Roman empire: afterwards to continue the inquiry through the middle ages, when almost the whole world was overspread by Mahometan and Gothic barbarism; then to contemplate the new aspect which infidelity assumed on the revival of letters, and the introduction of the Protestant reformation; and lastly, having brought down the history of its progressive labours to the present day, to consider what expectations we may justly entertain respecting the final

issue of this tremendous contest. The historical view of the subject being closed, it is intended, in the second part of these lectures, to enter upon a general vindication of the grounds and principles of the Christian faith, in answer to the arguments most commonly urged against its authority and credibility. These arguments, whether deduced from reasoning *à priori*, to show the improbability, unfitness, and inutility of revelation, or of reasoning *à posteriori*, to invalidate its evidences as a matter of fact—will be distinctively considered, in order to expose their futility, and to show the spirit of perverseness by which they are generally dictated." The field is ample, the plan good, the execution highly creditable. Upon the whole, however, we have been better pleased with the former than the latter part of our author's undertaking. The very idea of an *argument* implies an appeal to the *reason* of the mind, and consequently a determination to abide by her fair and impartial decision: yet in too many instances in this division of our author's labours, we are afraid he will be said to have departed from his challenge; and from an undue degree of timidity, as we should phrase it, or an apprehension of defeat, as it will unquestionably be termed by the adversary, to have quashed all further investigation, by pretending that the doctrine discussed and affirmed to be *contradictory* to reason is a *mystery*, a divine and unintelligible dogma, into which reason has no right to pry. Now, though we are very far from asserting that where mystery begins religion ends, or that the Christian religion contains no mysteries whatever,—mysteries which alone can justify its communication,

tion, and are the strongest proofs of its divine authority,—yet we would not so soon relinquish the combat. Nothing is, in strict truth, a divine mystery but that which is absolutely *incomprehensible* to human reason: not *contrary* to its deductions, but *superior* to its powers of contemplation. When the infidel pretends that a proposed doctrine is totally repugnant to reason, or in other words a plain contradiction, it is our bounden duty to rebut his remark, not to fly from it. It is our duty to do this at all times, but more especially when we undertake, like our author, in the latter half of his work, an *argumentative* inquiry into the truth of the Christian faith; that faith which, in appealing to the external evidence of historic facts in behalf of the solidity of its foundation, appeals to reason in the very outset, and which, in the prosecution of its appeal, uniformly and universally abjures all *self-contradiction*, though it contend for *incomprehensible sublimities*. Those who have carefully perused this body of divinity will at once be able to apply and appreciate these remarks; and most of them, like ourselves, will probably regret that a champion who has so completely clad himself in the panoply of the Christian armoury should, on particular occasions, have made so timid and unsatisfactory a defence.

“ Fifty-three Discourses; containing a connected System of doctrinal and practical Christianity as professed and maintained by the Church of England: 2 vols. By the Rev. Edward Brackenbury, A. B. Vicar of Shlendleby in the County of Lincoln, 8vo.” A connected system of christianity is what preachers should more frequently endeavour to communicate to their

hearers than we commonly find to be the fact. Discourses on single texts and single subjects may be occasionally useful: but divinity is a science; and if not learnt as other sciences are, it will never be learnt at all. In fact, *as a science*, it is much too little learnt in most places. And hence we far more generally meet with persons who have committed to memory detached portions of scripture, and are staunch champions for a few peculiar doctrines which, from a partial and unconnected course of reading or instruction, they suppose to be grounded on them, than with those who have studied the gospel as a whole, and have acquainted themselves with its various bearings and dependencies. Yet the Christian religion, like every other science, has its different views and systems; and the writer before us, as a minister of our own church, has honourably and conscientiously adhered to the system of her own profession. This system he has endeavoured to support by that which, after all, can alone support it, an appeal to holy writ—to the various or at least the most prominent passages from which, in his estimation, the different articles it maintains are deduced. In this fair and liberal elucidation he is, for the most part, highly successful: but we have to enter our protest against several of his citations, as by no means referable to the doctrines he is endeavouring to establish, and which, unquestionably, were never in the contemplation of the authors of our national articles at the time of their compilation. Mr. Brackenbury discovers no acquaintance with the Hebrew. This in a man pretending to holy orders is a defect unpardonable in every instance, considering the facility with

which a very competent knowledge of the Hebrew tongue may be acquired, and the high importance and even necessity of such an acquisition, in order to understand and explain the great subject intrusted to him. But, where a due knowledge of the original cannot be acquired, the next point of imperative duty is, that the preacher thus deficient should avail himself of every possible aid to obtain a full knowledge of the literal meaning of the holy scriptures, by a comparison of one version or commentary with another. This our author has not done in a variety of instances, and he has, hence, in one or two cases weakened, instead of having confirmed, some of the most essential doctrines of the church, by placing them on a foundation which does not apply to them, and was never intended to support them. But these are rare defects; and while the general system is by no means radically affected by them, our author is entitled to the thanks of the community for having honestly and conscientiously laboured in his high and holy calling to the utmost of his power, and for having produced a very valuable though not a faultless publication.

“Forty Sermons on doctrinal and practical Subjects: selected from the Works of the Rev. Dr. Sam. Clarke, for the Use of Families. To which is prefixed a Sketch of his Life. By the Rev. Sam. Clapham, M. A. 8vo.” Mr. Clapham has been engaged in a good office, and in many respects has successfully accomplished it. Dr. Clarke’s discourses are peculiarly valuable from the powerful and irresistible mode of reasoning which runs through them: but his method is sometimes tedious from its precision, and his language is, in a

good degree, become obsolete. Our reviser has certainly selected with ability, has disencumbered him with judgement, and given new spirit and vivacity to his diction. But we cannot approve of making an author profess sentiments which we know him to have habitually and zealously, however erroneously, opposed—and thus of presenting him to us in false and disingenuous colours. The staunch adversary of the Athanasian creed is here converted into a zealous asserter of its mysteries; and the sermons which uniformly and intentionally, in their original form, are silent upon the doctrine of the Holy Trinity, or, when they allude to it, only allude to it with disapprobation, are exhibited, in their new version, as peculiarly friendly to this article of our established creed, and occasionally terminate with a Trinitarian doxology. “It may be proper,” says Mr. Clapham in his preface, “to acquaint the reader that I have in a few instances *changed the expression* of the author; my conviction forbidding me to become the instrument of promulgating a doctrine derogatory to the character and dignity of the son of God and the spirit of truth.” But our editor has done something more than merely *changing the expression* to attain his object: he has made his author utter sentiments and doctrines (as we have already observed) repugnant to his own conviction, and to the direct object of the greater part of his publications. The cause of truth is not to be served by such means: and theologians are at least as much entitled to a retention of their characteristic opinions as writers of any other class. We should as soon think of making Mr. Burke, in a new and revised edition of his works, an apologist for the French revolution,

Newton the espouser of a plenum, or Copernicus of the Ptolemaic philosophy, as Dr. Sam. Clarke an advocate for the Trinity; and we should be as much justified in the three former cases as in the latter. We had occasion to make the same remark only a few numbers back, in noticing a new collection of psalms and hymns for what is called Unitarian worship, selected for the most part from Trinitarian poets, in which the stanzas were so completely trimmed, pruned and lopped off, to meet the proposed standard, that Cowper, Addison, Watts, and Meyrick, seemed to have arisen from their graves for the express purpose of recantation, and of holding a joint council to determine how they might most effectually oppose opinions which it had been the uniform tenor of their lives to establish. We objected to the practice then, and we object to it now: for what is wrong on the one side can never be right on the other.

Dr. Halliday, who has now relinquished the cure of souls for that of bodies, by having exchanged the duties of the ministry for the profession of physic, has published a small octavo volume, comprising seven sermons, composed by him in his former capacity. The subjects are as follow:—The shortness of life—The blessedness of those who die in the Lord—The importance of holiness—The advantages of early piety—The benefits of the death of Christ. If there be little novelty in these discourses there is much good sense, and a forcible impressive style. We are glad to see the doctor thus looking back to a function which we are sorry he has been compelled to quit, with a kind of longing, lingering, retrospect; and are confident that he will not make the worse physician for

carrying into his new profession a serious conviction of the importance of religious duties; a conviction which is not carried into it quite so frequently as we could sometimes wish it were.

Dr. Grant has published a third volume of his “Sermons on various Subjects and Occasions,” consisting of twenty-four discourses; of which it is sufficient to observe, that they possess the same merits and the same defects, the same plainness and perspicuity sometimes descending to a diction too low and colloquial, which characterize his preceding labours. Dr. Grant is minister of the English episcopal chapel at Dundee, and for various reasons, which to us are altogether satisfactory, finds himself incapable of following the example set before him by several of his brethren, of submitting to the canonical authority of the Scotch bishops, from a mistaken idea that no essential difference exists between the two churches, and that hence to continue in a state of separation from the local establishment is to evince an unjustifiable obstinacy of spirit. On this account, the volume before us closes with what the author chooseth to call “An apology for continuing in the communion of the church of England.” It is an essay which we heartily recommend to all who are interested in the question.

Mr. Cooper, the rector of Hamstall Ridwere, has published a second volume of sermons, of which the first was presented to the public in 1804, and will be found noticed in our Literary Retrospect for that year, p. 283. The subjects discussed in the volume before us, twelve in number, are as follow: The sin and danger of neglecting the great salvation of the gospel—The life and death of the

real christian—The duty of surrendering ourselves to God explained and enforced—Angels rejoicing over the penitent sinner—Consolation to the afflicted—Exposition with careless sinners—The grace of Christ sufficient for his people—Hezekiah's fall considered and applied—The duty of confessing Christ before men—The advantages of godliness to the present life—Earnestness in religion recommended and enforced—The marks of true faith stated and explained. The character we gave of the former volume will apply to the present: the discourses are plain, serious, and forcible; doctrinal rather than practical: yet the doctrine is for the most part of the best and most established character. Our author discovers in every page a strong desire to be sincerely useful in his day and generation; and we rejoice that he has had sufficient encouragement to add to the length of his labours.

Of the single Sermons that have occurred to our notice, by far the most extraordinary on various accounts, though not the most praiseworthy, is that preached by the rev. F. Stone, M. A. F. S. A. rector of Cold Norton, before the archdeacon of Essex, at his visitation holden at Danbury, July 8, 1806; and which he entitles "Jewish Prophecy, the sole Intention to distinguish between genuine and spurious Christian Scripture; or a humble Attempt to remove the grand and hitherto insurmountable Obstacles to the Conversion of Jews and Deists to the Christian Faith. Affectionately submitted to their Consideration." In the course of this sermon the present minister of the church of England, a beneficed priest in his profession, before a full and public convocation of his brethren in holy orders, undertakes

to assert, and attempts to prove, that all the chief articles of the national creed are founded in falsehood or imposture: that our blessed Saviour was a man, and nothing more than a man: that he was conceived not by the Holy Ghost, but by Joseph his reputed father, brought forth not of the *virgin* Mary, but of Mary the *wife* in consequence of the consummation of her nuptials—and born not at Bethlehem but at Nazareth: that the first two chapters of St. Matthew, upon which the orthodox belief is chiefly founded, are a gross fraud and imposition upon the Christian world: that the hypostatic union is an old wives' fable—the Arian trinity all fiction and sophistry—the Athanasian trinity a monster of absurdity—and the doctrine of the atonement a disgusting impossibility!!! How many of the reverend auditory to whom this string of indecencies and blasphemies was addressed had the spirit and consistency to quit the walls of a church so profaned, in the midst of the profanation itself, we are not told; nor what was the vote of censure passed unanimously upon the renegade preacher, by the clergy present, in consequence of his open and avowed apostasy—nor whether any such vote was passed at all. The only point that appears creditable upon the occasion—and the credit of this is merely negative—is, that the sermon before us does *not* appear to be published at the request of those who were hearers of it, whether clergy or laity. The manly and liberal spirit of our constitution tolerates the religious opinions of every man, so long as they are restrained within the bounds of sobriety and good manners; and we trust it will long continue to tolerate them: but in the present instance there appears to have been
neither

neither good manners, nor sobriety, nor even common *honesty*; and though we are no friends to persecution of any kind, much less to religious persecution, we trust that some effectual method will be taken to prevent the repetition of so scandalous an outrage and abuse of toleration in future. The rev. Mr. Francis Stone is certainly at full liberty to become an Unitarian, or a Mahometan, or even a Deist or an Atheist, if he choose; but he is not at liberty, upon any principles we can conceive of common honour or honesty, of religion or morality of any kind, to continue in such case rector of Cold Norton; to retain possession of his benefice while he publicly avows his apostasy: to live, and that in ease and affluence, upon the very church with which he is in open rebellion, nor to anathematize from the pulpit the peculiarly characteristic doctrines of the national creed—immediately after having, in the pew, pretended to join in a liturgy that is full of such doctrines*.

From Mr. Belsham we expect a profession of many of the principles thus parricidiously advocated by the rector of Cold Norton: and however we may object to his argument as advanced in the discourse we are now called upon to notice, entitled “The Importance of right Sentiments concerning the Person of Christ—preached at Essex-street Chapel, April 10, 1806,” we have no right to object to his honesty. Mr. Belsham does not make use of one system of divinity in his prayers and another in his pulpit—nor receive tithes from an establishment with whose creed he is at open warfare. The sermon before us,

indeed, independently of the peculiar tenets it propounds, is somewhat too dogmatical and self-important, but, in point of general liberality and true christian charity, is certainly entitled to our approbation.

From Dr. Maltby we have received an admirable sermon preached before the university of Cambridge on Commencement Sunday—the text John ix. 4. “I must work the works of him that sent me while it is day: the night cometh when no man can work.” There is, in this discourse, a perspicuity of method, a justness of reasoning, a purity of language, and a force and solemnity of application, which we earnestly recommend to the study of every one who wishes to acquire the best, the most solid and useful oratory of the pulpit. That it was *heard* with effect we have no doubt of; that it has been *read* with effect we can personally answer for.

“A Sermon preached at Leicester, June 6, 1806, at the Visitation of the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Lincoln: by the Hon. and Rev. H. Ryder, A. M. Rector of Lutterworth.” The hon. and rev. H. Ryder fills, in the rectory of Lutterworth, a pulpit which was once the possession of Wickliffe—and long may he fill it while he preaches such sermons as the present is the honest prayer of our heart. The preacher’s subject is of high consequence in our own times, in which we find, among a certain description of persons, so much sanctimonious confidence and self-conceit; it is devoted to the doctrine of pre-election and the certain assurance of salvation, and his text is

* We have since understood that an ecclesiastical prosecution has been commenced against Mr. Stone, in the name of the Bishop of London, by his vicar-general Sir Wm. Scott.

1 Corinth. ix. 27. His object is two-fold—to point out the grand evils of spiritual pride, and at the same time general relaxation in spiritual duties which it is too apt to engender—and to prove that it is a doctrine equally incompatible with the test of scripture itself; the examples and precepts of its inspired authors; the interpretations of their more immediate successors, and the general sentiments of our established church; although the preacher admits that there have been, occasionally, distinguished persons belonging to the church who have erroneously adhered to such a tenet. “Let us therefore,” says he, “relinquishing all vain expectation of preternatural conviction, pursue the plain path which the gospel points out, and to which our church will lead us: let us walk with the fear of God on the one hand, and the comfort of the Holy Ghost on the other: with such a fear of being cast away as, keeping us steadfast unto the end, will be changed into awful reverence; with such a hope of the prize of our high calling as, brightening gradually to the last, will be lost in the vision of celestial glory—in a possession of “the fullness of joy.”

We have also to notice a very excellent Sermon preached in St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin, July 13, 1806, at the Consecration of the Rev. Dr. C. B. Warburton, Bishop of Limerick: by the Rev. Richard Groves, D. D. M. R. I. A. Our preacher's text is derived from the last three verses of St. Matthew,—and a more argumentative, convincing dissertation in favour of a regular hierarchy, derived chiefly from that source which is first of all to be consulted and abided by on such occasions, the New Testament, we have never met with.

1806.

To the different classes of dissenters we recommend it strenuously: we have a full knowledge of the liberality of a great number of them, and on such we are confident it will produce impression, if not thorough conviction.

The other single Sermons which have occurred to us as chiefly worthy of notice, but upon which we cannot dwell in detail, are Mr. Walker's, preached in bishop Strachan's chapel, Dundee, at the Consecration of the R. R. Dan. Sandford to the office of a bishop in the Scotch episcopal church, entitled “On the Condition and Duties of a tolerated Church;” doctor Gaskin's, delivered at St. Benet, Gracechurch-street, &c. entitled “The English Liturgy, a Form of sound Words;” Mr. Cracknell's, preached at Hoxton chapel before the Supporters of the Hoxton College, at their anniversary, June 26, from Ephes. iv. 12.; Mr. Hawkey's, preached at Holy-rhood church, Southampton, August 10, 1806, entitled “On the Duty of Humanity toward the irrational Part of the Creation;” and Mr. Aspland's on the death of Mr. Fox, preached at the Gravel-pit Meeting, Hackney, September 21, 1806.

We lament to find that the dispute concerning the real principles of our established church continues in a state as unsettled as ever. It is disgusting to retread the grounds we have already trodden for several years past upon this same subject, and again to bring forward the arguments, the sophistries, the wrath that have been occasionally advanced on all sides, with a view of confounding whatever might happen to be asserted by the opposite party. Amidst the myriads of pages that have been compiled on this subject, we know of but three

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works

works that have entered into a fair, historical and circumstantial inquiry concerning it: and these are bishop Prettyman's Charge to the Clergy of the Diocese of Lincoln, delivered at the Triennial Visitation in 1803, an account of which our readers will find in our Literary Retrospect of the same year; Dr. Lawrence's Bampton Lectures preached at Oxford in 1804, and noticed, with due approbation, in this journal in our last year's number; and a most candid and erudite work now before us, the production of an old and venerable clergyman, who has served in the sacred ministry for nearly half a century, but who, with a modesty not often to be met within the present day, still chooses to conceal his name, while he is endeavouring, with an ability that cannot fail of success, to subserve the best interests of his holy profession. This work is entitled "Primitive Truth; in a History of the internal State of the Reformation, expressed by the early Reformers in their Writings, and in which the Question concerning the Calvinism of the Church of England is determined by positive Evidence." It is a thin octavo of 283 pages. Our readers may form some judgement of its importance and research from the following catalogue of its sections. 1. Events in the reign of queen Mary. 2. Circumstances in the reign of Elizabeth. 3. Contention about vestments and ceremonies. 4. Answer of Jewel bishop of Salisbury to frivolous objections against the church government. 5. What the church truly is. 6. Reformation in the reign of queen Elizabeth compared with that in the reign of Edward VI. 7. Com-

parison of the church articles with the sentiments of all the chief foreign reformers. 8, 9, 10. Continuation of the same. 11. Of sin, from Bullinger. 12. Of the gospel, from the same. 13, 14. Of providence and predestination, signs and sacraments, from the same. 15. Archbishop Parker's articles of religion, as drawn up for subscription in 1560. 16. His preface to the Bishop's Bible. 17. Public apology of the church of England. 18. Bishop Jewel's description of the worship of the church. 19, 20. Other extracts from the works of the same, intimately connected with the question. 21. Opinion of Sands archbishop of York. 22. Origin of the reformation in Switzerland. 23, 24, 25. Continuation of the same. 26. Party-prejudice. 27. The inconsistency of the appeal to the same authorities for the vindication of opposite opinions. In the course of the entire discussion, the author is, in the highest degree, liberal to the parties from whom he differs; and in truth more of the milk of human kindness, or true christian charity, we have never met with. All parties should read this work, and all may read it with moral and devotional as well as intellectual improvement. In the main he agrees completely with bishop Prettyman, whose words we thus quoted from the charge we have just referred to, "Our church is not Lutheran—it is not Calvinistic—it is not Arminian—it is SCRIPTURAL!" Our author in section 5 of the inquiry before us repeats these words in substance. Yet in sections 7, 8, 9. he endeavours strenuously to establish, what the bishop of Lincoln certainly never intended nor even supposed, that

that though the church be not Lutheran, not Calvinistic (or, as it should rather be called, Calvinic,) not Arminian, but *Scriptural*, yet that it is, at the same time, truly and directly ZUINGLIAN, and that its interpretation of scripture was collected from the doctrines of Zuinglius. We confess, therefore, that the dispute is still open—and the more so from Dr. Lawrence's conclusion, after his own most cautious and accurate inquiry, that, in opposition to both the preceding theologians, the church articles are "neither the production of Parker nor of the Convocation; that they were not borrowed from any Calvinic or Zuinglian, but from a *Lutheran* creed."

We are not alone in this apprehension: the very powerful Charge of Dr. Horsley, delivered in the course of the current year at his first visitation as bishop of St. Asaph—alas! that it should have been both his first and his last! apparently from the very same feeling—a full knowledge of the perplexity of the point—and with a wisdom to which we most implicitly bow—thus terminates its exhortation: "These intricate questions tend to nothing but perplexity and scepticism; and the discussions of them conduce to endless discord and dissension.—Leave these barren disquisitions to the theologians of the schools. Apply yourselves with the whole strength and power of your minds to do the work of evangelists. Proclaim to those who are at enmity with God, and children of his wrath, the glad tidings of Christ's pacification. Sound the alarm, to awaken to a life of righteousness a world lost and dead in trespasses and sins. Lift aloft the blazing

torch of revelation, to scatter its rays over them that sit in darkness and the shadow of death: and guide the footsteps of the benighted wanderer into the paths of life and peace." This was his last and almost his *dying charge*: one more solemn or more truly important and in character he could not have given, had the clergy of his diocese been assembled around his *dying bed*.

How infinitely more wise, and prospective of eventual benefit, than to endeavour to accomplish many of the same ends by new acts of parliament and legislative interferences, as his grace of Canterbury is warmly recommended to do by an anonymous clergyman, in a pamphlet published with much assumed consequence, and an intimate acquaintance with his grace's predecessor, under the title of "Hints for the Security of the Established Church." In the course of which address it is our author's object to turn out of the ecclesiastic pale all those preachers who are vulgarly denominated Methodists; but of whose religious opinions as constituting a system—probably from the Proteus-shape and perpetual variation of those opinions themselves—our author does not appear to possess any very accurate conception. In his view of the subject, though not in our own, this is certainly a matter of no small degree of personal consequence to our national primate; since from the existence of this cause alone, "if the object of martyrdom," says our author, "ever formed an object of your ambition, you have, in the estimate of many, as fair a prospect of having that wish gratified, or, at least, of witnessing the annihilation of your

high dignity, as any of your predecessors since the days of Cranmer."

We have of late years had to speak repeatedly of internal dissensions and separations among the people called Quakers—and dissensions and separations which we only collected from their own histories, and which threatened a speedy subversion to the entire sect. We are now to notice a work which is certainly of a pleasanter kind, in as much as it represents them in a far more harmonious and amiable light than they have of late represented themselves, and which we well know to have been peculiarly grateful to the larger body of them. We allude to Mr. Clarkson's "Portraiture of Quakerism, as taken from a View of the Moral Education, Discipline, Peculiar Customs, Religious Principles, Political and Civil Economy and Character of the Society of Friends:" and which we classify in this department, because quakers have been usually regarded as constituting a religious rather than a political sect; and because they have heretofore occupied the present ground-plot of our Retrospect. We have long perceived an approximation in this fraternity towards the rest of the world, and we have rejoiced at it. The author before us seems to deny it; but we ask for no clearer proof of our assertion than the very book before us, coupled as it is well known to have been with the *imprimatur* of the society whose history it records. Perhaps the modernized arguments for separation and peculiarity of customs here advanced are in every respect superior to those of a quainter and more mystical nature urged by Fox, Penn and Barclay:

but we are sure that they are arguments which would not have been equally current in their respective æras. We have here reason appealed to instead of feeling: external motives instead of internal spiritualism. We are glad that the book is approved of, though we cannot always approve of the motives and the reasons adverted to;—but the very approbation indicates in our mind, a serious constitutional change in the sensations of this harmless society, and which, in no illegible characters, prognosticates its approaching downfall. Our author himself, indeed, admits that its members are supposed to have diminished of late years: nor does he intimate that its provincial charity-schools, many of which we lately pointed out as in a state of ruin, have received any additional encouragement since we brought the topic before the public.

We close with a subject in which we can truly rejoice—we mean the "Report of the British and Foreign Bible Society;" the rapid progress and increased means of which, are only commensurate with the heart-reviving and truly astonishing advantages which seem to have resulted not only in all quarters at home, but in all parts of the north of Europe, from the vast extension of its most honourable and glorious exertions. The first year of the institution of this excellent Society produced a joint subscription throughout Great Britain of 55007. in the second it was nearly doubled; and there is every reason to hope it will continue to augment in an equal proportion. The Bible, that best guide and hope of man, is now gratuitously circulated from England in almost all languages to almost all places.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL AND MATHEMATICAL.

Comprehending Medicine and Surgery, Natural History, Experimental Philosophy, Agriculture, Mechanics, Astronomy, Commerce, Arithmetic, Naval and Military Tactics.

WE shall open this chapter, according to our usual custom, with the most important branch of all physical knowledge—physiology, and the laws of preserving or re-acquiring health; the *bygiene*, or *bygieia* as it is denominated by the French schools. M. Pinel's excellent "Treatise on Insanity," which has already passed through our hands in its original form, has been carefully translated into English by Dr. Davis of the Sheffield Infirmary; to which version the translator has prefixed an introductory essay of his own, containing a cursory view of the history of insanity as connected with the human mind. It is well placed, and discovers a close attention to the best writers upon this important but still recondite subject. The translation of M. Pinel's treatise into our own tongue was certainly a desideratum: for we have no work upon mental alienation so compendious, and at the same time so truly scientific and practically useful.

Yet Dr. Arnold of Edinburgh has furnished us, in his "Observations on the Nature, Kinds, Causes and Prevention of Insanity," with a larger work on the same topic, which is well entitled to attention, and, for the most part, to no small portion of approbation. Dr. Arnold is no novice in this disease. Nearly twenty years ago he published a volume on the same tremendous malady, which was by no

means destitute of merit: his attention has ever since that period been occasionally directed to the same point; and in the "Observations" before us we have his maturer sentiments, as they have arisen in the course of his intermediate practice. We shall take an ampler glance at the disease before us, because we have the fullest conviction, as well from our own professional remarks, as from the unanimous testimony of every medical writer of reputation in every part of Europe, that it is progressively increasing in the world. Were this observation confined to our own country, we think we could offer a variety of plausible reasons to account for such a fact—and reasons which this hint alone will be sufficient to excite in the mind of every man, without particularly detailing them: but when climate, when manners, when the distresses of the country, and the force of many of its religious opinions, are withdrawn from the mass of causes—when we find this cruel malady as largely multiplied in one part of Europe, if not of the world, as in another—in France as in England—in Italy as in Germany—we confess ourselves at a loss as to the general or procatactic cause of the augmentation, however we may flatter ourselves that we have discovered its proeguminal stimuli. Perhaps there is no disease but has its cycle—perhaps there is none but has its birth, maturity and declension

Many diseases which are now known were certainly not known in the times of the Greeks and Romans, among which we may mention rachitis, siphilis and scrofula—and hence the absurd and unclassical appellations which they have obtained in our modern nomenclatures: many of the diseases, then fully known and described, have since altogether disappeared: and many again which have arisen, even since the revival of literature (comparatively of ephemeral existence) have already begun to die away. The English sweating fever was almost literally an ephemeral malady. The rickets, which have now endured for about a century and a half only, are at this hour so considerably on the decline, that probably the next generation will have to wonder what was meant by the term. The siphilis, or syphilis, for the origin of the term is uncertain, though by no means worn out, and perhaps more common than ever, has dropped more than half its horror; and had vaccination not been discovered till a century hence, so less proportionably severe is the small-pox of the present day compared with the same disease in the time of Sydenham, and so progressively is it diminishing in virulence and fatality, that, unquestionable as is the boon to us now, it might then be regarded as a discovery of supererogation.

Complex as is the mechanism of the body, the mechanism of the mind is more complex still—and the dreadful malady to which it is idiopathically subject does not yet appear to have reached its perfect acmé. But we are bewildering ourselves in a maze of prospective melancholy from which no good can possibly result. What, in the

language of Dr. Arnold, are the “kinds,” for we give up the *causes*, and what more especially the “prevention” of this fearful calamity? Of the *kinds* our author enumerates two—ideal and notional; the first admitting of four species, phrenetic, incoherent, maniacal, sensitive; the second embracing not less than nine, viz. delusive, whimsical, fanciful, impulsive, scheming, vain or self-important, hypochondriacal, pathetic, appetitive. We cannot enter into his species, or we should object to several of them, but his kinds or grand divisions are defined as follows: “*Ideal* insanity is that state of mind in which a person imagines he sees, hears, or otherwise perceives or converses with, persons or things which have either no external existence to his senses at that time, or have no such external existence as they are then conceived to have: or, if he perceives external objects as they really exist, has yet erroneous and absurd ideas of his own form, and other sensible qualities; such a state of mind continuing for a considerable time, and being unaccompanied with any violent or adequate degree of fever. *Notional* insanity is that state of mind in which a person sees, hears, or otherwise perceives external objects as they really exist, as objects of sense, yet conceives such notions of the powers, properties, designs, state, destination, importance, manner of existence, or the like, of things and persons, of himself and others, as appear obviously, and often grossly erroneous, and unreasonable, to the common sense of the sober and judicious part of mankind. It is of considerable duration, is never accompanied with any great degree of fever, and very often with no fever at all.”

It is here sufficiently obvious that our author, though he have not confined himself to the terms, has at least limited his views to the division of Mr. Locke—and that, in the language of this excellent metaphysician, the wording of Dr. Arnold's two distinctions would be *insanity of sensation*, and *insanity of reflection*, or sensitive and reflex insanity. We prefer Mr. Locke's terms to his own. It is also equally obvious, that in his general character of the disease, he has embraced every species of the *hallucinatio* of Sauvage, as well as those of his *delirium*; and that his description is so comprehensive as to include almost, or perhaps altogether, every one who puts what the writer himself may deem a false estimate on any object or subject introduced; and of course so comprehensive as to include every person who differs from himself in opinion. For, when he speaks of "the common sense of the sober and judicious part of mankind," he can only mean, as is meant by every one else who employs such a phraseology, that which *he* regards as its sober sense—no person, in this respect, allowing any other to determine for him. Yet much as we object to our author's definition, we highly approve the indefatigable industry with which he has studied his subject in the writings and opinions of the most esteemed authorities. We are chiefly sorry that after all, notwithstanding his adventuring to touch upon the "nature, kinds, causes, and prevention of insanity," he has not felt himself warranted to speak upon the *cure* of this disease. We give due credit to his modesty, and lament over the hopelessness that restrains him.

The cowpox is still, we perceive, waging its *bellum ad internecionem*,

although we had flattered ourselves we should have been at liberty to have dropped it with the observations we advanced in our last year's number, and especially as we ventured to step a little beyond our due limits to save ourselves and our readers the trouble of reverting to it for several subsequent numbers. But the trumpet is still sounding, and we have nothing to do but to obey the call. Besides the tracts and treatises we have already anticipated, the current year has furnished us with "Vaccine Inoculation," by Robert Willan, M. D. F. A. S. which has already attained a second edition: "The Vaccine Contest;" by Wm. Blair, M. A. &c.: and not less than three answers to Mr. Birch in consequence of his pamphlet in repudiation of the practice: one by Mr. James Moore; one by the indefatigable Mr. Ring; and one by an anonymous "Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London." We have but little fresh matter, however, notwithstanding this fresh accession of materials, to add to the observations we have already advanced: the argument is altogether with the vaccinists, but the triumph most assuredly *for the present* with their opponents; for we believe no unprejudiced practitioner will pretend to say, that at the moment before us there is not a stronger and more extensive prejudice against vaccine inoculation than there was a year and a half or two years ago. In truth, we have always thought the cause injudiciously handled by its best or rather by its warmest advocates: it was an instrument that required much delicacy of touch—and they have snapped the strings by screwing them up too tightly. Had the discovery been suffered to take its own

course, and to find its own level, we verily believe there would have been at this time scarcely a dissenting voice heard against it. But it has been weakened by excess of kindness; systematic encouragements have produced systematic oppositions; and the personal and earnest entreaties which have been made to vast numbers of the poorest families, and from the best and most benevolent of motives, to be allowed the honour of inoculating their ragged brats, have been received generally with a suspicion of self-interest, and often with a contemptuous refusal. The anti-vaccinists have availed themselves of the common feeling hereby engendered, and every dying prejudice has been resuscitated with tenfold vigour. For the uninitiated, Dr. Willan's is by far the best book to be consulted: for the controversialist, the best reply is that of Mr. Moore.

We have already noticed in our review of foreign literature M. Cabanis' valuable "*Coup d'Œil*," or, as his translator names it, "*Sketch of the Revolutions of Medical Science*;" and are now happy to announce an English version of this useful work from the pen of Dr. Henderson, who has executed his task with no small credit to himself. The volume, as we hinted in our last number, is devoted to the two considerations of the history of medical science, and the various æras of its chief revolutions, and the means by which this science may be still further reformed and improved. In the former part our author enters with considerable minuteness—more so, indeed, than the few scanty details of unquestionable facts which we possess would seem to justify—into the life and pursuits of Hippocrates, and the

origin of the school of Cos: he glances rapidly at the succeeding schools of Greece, Rome and Arabia; and, among the moderns, dwells with peculiar complacency upon Stahl, Sydenham and Boerhaave. In his second part he advises an employment of the analytical plan to a greater extent—the deduction of legitimate results from facts more largely collected and generalized: he offers some valuable remarks upon nosology, which we think stands in need of even more correction than he has here suggested—and that in every ramification which belongs to it, whether of classification, nomenclature, or terminology; and concludes with recommending a close attention to various accessory departments of medicine. The whole should be perused with care, and the careful reader will not peruse in vain.

"A Practical Treatise on the power of Cantharides when used internally: by John Robertson, Surgeon, Edinburgh," thin octavo. This is a useful inquiry into the powers of a very active and, when skilfully directed, a very valuable medicine. The diseases in which the author has chiefly found it serviceable are gleet and leucorrhœa. From a personal and very considerable experience of many years, we can honestly concur with him in its recommendation. It is of great consequence, however, that in the case of gonorrhœa the constitution be not possest of high nervous irritability: for we have found most painful and obstinate dysuries introduced in such habits even by small doses, and especially when, from the existence of permanent strictures in the course of the urethra, there is a greater disposition to spasmodic contraction. In leucorrhœa this consideration is of much

much smaller consequence; and here we believe it may be administered with most success. The tincture is judiciously recommended in the present work; and the dose, which should be gradually increased, commences with from eight to twelve drops. Our author recommends the same medicine, also, in cases of indolent ulcers: but in these instances even his own practice does not appear to have been highly fortunate. He has added some valuable experiments on the use of both the tincture and powder in large doses on dogs: a dram and half of the former produces great chylopoietic inflammation; and half a dram of the latter was generally sufficient to destroy the animal.

We shall extend our attention to other diseases connected with the Sexual System. Mr. Howard, who some time since published various observations on Siphilis, has now presented us with a larger work in two octavo volumes upon the same subject, under the title of "Practical Observations on the Natural History and Cure of the Venereal Disease." Mr. Howard is certainly an attentive observer, and in some parts of his work appears to have been an attentive reader. In his history of the origin of lues venerea he inclines to the opinion that it is not a simple disease, but of hybrid breed, and the mere result of the yaws and leprosy, produced in Africa by the Moorish Jews after their expulsion from Spain. In his mode of cure he does not differ essentially from the best general methods of practice: he regards gonorrhœa as generated by a different poison from lues, and as curable without mercury; yet, with an irregularity of reasoning we cannot account for, he recom-

mends the use of mercury in the former as well as in the latter. We have also received a work of some value in the "Practical Observations" of Mr. Henry Johnston, occupying a thin octavo, and directed to strictures of the urethra; diseases of the bladder and prostate gland; and urinary gravel and stone. Calculi, he proves by additional cases and experiments, may have a chance of being dissolved by injections into the bladder, the nature of the calculus, whether acid or alkaline, being in the first instance ascertained. Yet, where injections may not be used, or even advisable, the disease in its commencement may be alleviated, if not totally destroyed, by the introduction of alkalis into the stomach, which should hence seem to counteract the secretion of the uric acid by the kidneys. In the case of stricture, our author is decisive in preferring the medical cure by the caustic bougie, to the mere relaxation of the constricted ring by the common bougie: or rather, he is certain that the first method alone produces a radical cure. Connected herewith we may mention, that in a very enlarged form, and certainly enriched by many subsequent observations and improvements, Dr. Adams has republished his "Observations" on what he calls "Morbid Poisons." These he divides into acute and chronic: the first comprehending siphilis, yaws, syvvens, elephantiasis, and the anomala confounded with them: the second, febrile contagions, particularly the variolous and vaccine. The theory of constitutional susceptibility and disposition, invented by Mr. John Hunter, is here embraced in its utmost latitude, and enforced by many ingenious conjectures and observations of the author's

author's own. Upon siphilis he is very full, but rather as a commentator, than a propounder of new or extraordinary information.

Dyspeptic affections have received some attention from various quarters. A pamphlet written by the accurate and indefatigable Daubenton has been anonymously translated into English; on which, without entering into his theory, we shall only observe, that the author strongly recommends, and from successful experiments on his own person, small doses of ipecacuanha, each consisting of about three grains for an adult, and of course incapable of exciting vomiting, to be taken in the morning fasting. From Dr. Stone we have also received a short but a more general treatise upon dyspepsia, which not only comprises "Diseases of the Stomach and of Digestion," but also the "History and Treatment of those Affections of the Liver and digestive Organs which occur in Persons who return from the East or West Indies: with Observations on various Medicines, and particularly on the improper Use of Emetics." In the midst of much desultory chit-chat we meet with some valuable remarks. Our author is a decided enemy to the use of digitalis, and objects to that of castor oil from its frequent impurity. Yet he confirms the practice of Dr. Hamilton as to the benefit almost sure to result from purgatives in most dyspeptic diseases, and especially in hypochondriasis and hæmorrhage of the stomach. Gout may, in some measure, be regarded as a link in the same chain; and from the pen of the late Dr. Hamilton, of Lynn Regis, we have received a posthumous treatise, which, though little imbued with the spirit or science of

modern chemistry or physiology, is highly respectable in regard to the facts it contains, and the mode of practice it offers. The author was a severe victim at one period of his life to this cruel scourge, and to the last an occasional sufferer from its returns: but, both in his own person and in others, he uniformly found the podagral paroxysms pass off with comparative ease and brevity by the use of bleeding, calomel with opium, cathartics freely employed, topical blistering, and, if not refrigerant applications, at least keeping the part perfectly cool, and free from the incumbrance of additional flannels.

The other medical publications of the year, which are chiefly worthy of notice, are Dr. Reid's "Treatise on the Origin, Progress, Prevention and Treatment of Consumption;" a work containing some sensible remarks, but purposely enveloped in Brunonian mysticism, and too much brocaded with the tinsel of fine writing. "Observations on Abortion," by Mr. Burns of Glasgow, for the most part well worth perusing by every one whose studies are chiefly devoted to the obstetric art; affording much that is novel, and not a little that is interesting, but a good deal that is totally unfounded, or at least in direct opposition to the experience of other practitioners. "Essay on the Diseases incident to Indian Seamen or Lascars on long Voyages;" by W. Hunter, A. M. &c. The disease here chiefly referred to is a peculiar species of anasarca, noticed very frequently in several vessels in the Company's service in 1801, and which our author proposes to call anasarca cacotrophica. The accounts given both of this and the other maladies of the Lascar tribe are well drawn up from actual observation;

ervation: and the volume, which was printed at Calcutta, is highly worthy of being circulated at home. "The Naval Surgeon: the whole illustrated by Plates; by W. Turnbull, A.M. &c." One of the neatest and most complete compilations we have ever met with: clear in its division, accurate in its information, important and correct in its instructions, and elegant in its *materia medica*. We can conscientiously recommend it to every medical practitioner in the service. This, however, is a praise which we cannot bestow on "The Naval, Military and Private Practitioner's Amanuensis, Medicus et Chirurgicus," of "Ralph Cuming, M.D. R.N. Medical Superintendant of his Majesty's Naval Hospital, Antigua." A more flatulent, conceited publication, filled with pompous nothings, and interlarded with scraps of the most barbarous Latin, we have never met with, and trust we never shall. Dr. Cuming is also a Brunonian—and more deeply intoxicated with its diffusible stimuli than his co-student Dr. Reid: "Æther, says he, opium, brandy, oleum menthæ piperitidis, and the volatile alkali, should always be at hand, when the patient, whether he be young or old, is using *aqua frigida*." We would commend the author to the use of *aqua frigida* alone, for, at least the ensuing twelve months.

Upon the subjects of practical surgery, and anatomy, whether human or comparative, we have received not a single publication in the smallest degree entitled to notice, in the course of the entire year, if we except Mr. Bell's Essays which more properly appertain to our fourth chapter on literature and polite arts.

Chemistry has been nearly as

barren, if we except several very valuable papers inserted in the Transactions of scientific societies, and which, consequently, do not belong to the present chapter. Dr. Wilson, however, has given us a useful and accurate "Analysis of the Malvern Waters," issuing from the only mineral spring in our own country that affords carbonat of soda; which, according to the experiments before us, exists in the proportion of $5\frac{1}{2}$ grains in a gallon, very largely exceeding the carbonat of iron, which is also held in solution in the same waters. These waters are found chiefly serviceable in dyspepsia, urinary calculus, and all complaints in which powerful diuretics are indicated. We have also to notice a new, enlarged, and much improved edition of Mr. Henry's "Epitome of Chemistry;" and from the pen of Mr. "S. Parkes, Manufacturing Chemist," we have received a bulky octavo, entitled "A Chemical Catechism for the Use of young People; with copious Notes for the Use of the Teacher: to which are added a Vocabulary of chemical Terms, useful Tables, and a Chapter of amusing Experiments" concerning which we shall only add, that if the reader be not induced by perusing the title to purchase it, he certainly will not by an examination of the contents.

In an octavo volume, entitled "The Climate of Great-Britain, &c. by John Williams, Esq." we have what *the author*, at least, thinks a *shrewd* guess at the supposed deterioration which this climate has undergone within the last half-century; together with a bold project for altering our seasons, and giving us rain, dry weather and sun-shine at pleasure. Our author assumes it as a fact, that the climate has changed, and is become much
moister

moister and colder than in former æras, chiefly upon a loose assertion of William of Malmesbury, who wrote in the twelfth century, that many parts of Gloucestershire and the Isle of Ely afforded as good vineyards as any of the provinces of France. The assertion, however, is so desultory and unsupported by other testimony, that it is scarcely worth attention, much less entitled to become the foundation of so sublime and daring a project as that now presented to us. Having, however, in this manner established his fact, our author next proceeds to account for it by a reference to the different modern improvements in agriculture, horticulture, and canal navigation—almost every one of which, he tells us, is a joint or separate cause of the mischief complained of. “I attribute,” says he, “the humidity, and consequently coldness, of our modern summers, to the increased evaporating surface caused by the enclosing of the open fields and wastes: the multifarious intersections of them by fences, especially with hawthorn: to the increased luxuriance of our crops, by a general system of improvement in the agriculture of the country: to these I may with propriety add the late increase of pasturage, productive of a serious disproportion between that and tillage: to the numerous plantations, more especially of foreign trees, and such whose exhaling power is prodigiously great; and the immense bodies of nearly stagnated water in the numerous canals that have been cut within the assigned period.” Now, admitting that the nature of the climate has actually changed, and changed too for the worse, a very slight glance at the state of the country at present and fifty years ago, will sufficiently

prove, that, whatever may have been the causes of such a change, the circumstances here referred to have not been so. In consequence of the general introduction of land-draining, almost all our stagnant marshes and swampy moors have disappeared; and notwithstanding the increase of our canals, we certainly have not a tenth part of the surface of stagnant waters now that we had at the former period. Our antient and almost immeasurable forests have in like manner yielded to the plough and the axe: and the high price of corn has of late years metamorphosed a very great proportion of our pasture lands back again into arable; while we believe that the larger part of our inclosed wastes has been appropriated to tillage rather than to grass. But we cannot dwell upon the subject. We proceed therefore to state in few words the plan here proposed to call back the climate to the elysium of former times, so that every Englishman may be enabled, in the literal sense of the terms, to “sit under his vine and his fig-tree with delight:” and this consists in regarding as nuisances, and consequently in annulling without loss of time, almost every improvement which is the pride of modern phytology: in diminishing our harvests, our canals, and our enclosures; in giving an ampler range to the strides of free uncultivated nature, which may be regarded as the *negative* part of the proposal; and, with respect to that which may be called its *positive* part, in a regular series of electrifying mills, established at certain distances throughout the British empire, armed with adequate machinery for diffusing a sufficient portion of positive electricity throughout “the vaporous regions of the atmosphere;”

atmosphere ;" of which, one or two, our author conjectures, might be sufficient for every county ; in a similar series of pluvial mills constructed upon "a process the reverse of this," which would act as an universal shower-bath, and enable us "to precipitate the aqueous particles at our pleasure ;" and lastly in establishing "a board of meteorology," which "should be united with other agricultural establishments for conducting the process;" in which "the machinery should be made to act simultaneously and under telegraphic signals ; otherwise one county would be counteracting another. And no attempt should be made to *effect a change in the weather*, except in those instances where there can be no doubt of the efficacy of such change, whether it should be *for fair or rain*." We have only to propose, by way of addition, that the committee-room for this board of meteorology be built in the afore-said "vaporous regions" themselves ; and that John Williams, esq. be appointed architect upon this occasion, and that the machinery be then set to work with all possible speed.

The very valuable pamphlet of sir Joseph Banks on the blight or mildew of wheat, noticed in our last number, has been commented upon and scrutinized by various agriculturists. The hypothesis, we believe, has generally been approved, though it has encountered some opposition ; but, what is of far more consequence than any thing else, the important fact it was meant to develop, namely, that the most mildewed wheat is as useful for seed, and may be as determinately employed as the fattest and most glossy, has been denied by no one, so far as our remarks have extend-

ed. In comparison with this most important discovery, all the rest is "but leather and prunello." The stoutest opponent of the right honourable author is Mr. Egremont, who, in a pamphlet designed as an answer to sir Joseph's observations, has published other "Observations on the Mildew ;" in which he conjectures, and so far we believe correctly, that the mildew is not a primary but a secondary disease : in other words, that the parasitic fungus which produces it, by being deposited and growing in the straw, or even the earlier grass, of the plant, would not be able to obtain a livelihood, or at least to thrive there, if the grass or straw were not weakened by some previous disease. This disease he supposes to arise from a morbid secretion in the plant, occasioned by a sudden variation in the temperature of the atmosphere, and especially from extreme cold to violent heat : and he arranges the soils most likely to allow of such morbid secretion from such sudden variation, and consequently most productive of mildew, into the following scale, the first enumerated being that chiefly predisposing to the disease : peat or moor ; 2. calcareous ; 3. sand ; 4. gray earth (a soil, however, not very accurately explained) ; 5. clay. Further observations upon this important subject are still necessary. Reasoning from animal physiology, we are certainly inclined to think, and have so expressed ourselves already, that not only the *usilago* (smut or black-mildew) but other diseases of a similar parasitic kind, as *albigo*, (white-mildew,) a species affecting other plants, and especially the *tussilago*, *farfara*, and *humulus* (or common hop,) as also *rubigo* (rust or red-mildew,) so frequently

ly found on wheat, oats, and even the *berberis euphorbia*, and *rhamnus catharticus*, are secondary diseases alone, and only exist in consequence of a weakly constitution of the plant in its earliest stage. We know that intestinal worms will not live in the stomach of a healthy child whose gastric juice is of due quantity and potency, and we have no reason to believe that such parasitic plants as *mucor*, *crysiphe*, and *æcidium*, the common fungi we apprehend in the cases now before us, would be more difficult of destruction by the living principle of the plant on which they fix, if in a state of perfect health, than the *tænia* by the action of a healthy stomach.

Mr. W. Smith, who has been employed in the character of engineer and mineralogist by the duke of Bedford, Mr. Coke, and several other eminent agriculturists, has published a thin octavo volume of "Observations on the Utility, Form and Management of Waste Meadows, and the Draining and Irrigating Peat-bogs;" which does him no small degree of credit. It gives a plain account of various and very extensive improvements in this branch of agricultural engineering, conducted under his own superintendence, which are well worth attending to by all who possess landed estates under similar disadvantages. Mr. Smith evinces much skill in his profession, and his well-directed labours seem to ensure an enormous profit to his employers.

"An Account of some Experiments for drilling and protecting Turnips: by the Rev. T. C. Munnings." This is a very useful treatise, and especially to the Norfolk farmer, for whose benefit it is chiefly intended. No plant suffers more than the turnip from its pe-

culiar delicacy, as well when it first makes its appearance, as when stacked for winter-stock; a variety of grubs and other predatory reptiles producing great mischief in the former case, and severe frosts still more extensive ruin in the latter. To give the turnip every advantage and every protection, Mr. Munnings recommends deep ploughing, drill-sowing instead of broadcast, and the continuance of such a number of rows at a considerable distance from each other, as may be sufficient for the winter-stock—which are to be completely moulded up, so as to bid defiance to the utmost severity of weather, by the introduction of a one-horse plough into the intermediate spaces, which will give the field the appearance of two-furrow-work, or tops and balks. He thinks it, however, still more advisable, and this may be done where the drill has not been employed, that the plants thus designed to outlast the winter should be transplanted into furrows already prepared for them, and the ridges afterwards shovelled over them up to the very top—a process which a single labourer will be able to effect in the proportion of two acres in three days; and the expense of the whole of which will be amply repaid by the preservation of the turnips against a period in which the grazier will be scarcely able to obtain any other provender, and by the amelioration of the soil itself, by being exposed on a larger surface, in consequence of its additional ploughing, and high ridges, to the action of the frost.

Dr. Alderson has published a useful little tract "On the Improvement of poor Soils;" which was lately read in the Holderness Agricultural Society, in reply to the following

following question; "What is the best method of cultivating and improving poor soils where lime and manure cannot be had?" The foundation on which our author proceeds is rational; his directions are easy and practicable; and the instances he adduces of success such as cannot fail of stimulating to similar exertions.

From the pen of an anonymous "Lincolnshire Grazier" we have received the second edition of a useful compilation under the title of "The Complete Grazier, or Farmer and Cattle-dealer's Assistant." It undertakes to give the best advice upon all subjects connected with husbandry, in a plain and concise manner; and upon the whole it is not often that it fails in its undertaking. We have also received from the pen of Mr. John Lawrence, of whose "General Treatise on Cattle" we have formerly spoken with respect, an octavo volume entitled "The Modern Land Steward;" in the course of which the chief duties and functions of stewardship are fairly considered and explained, and regarded in their several relations to the interests of the landlord, the tenant, and the community at large. We can recommend this work as an able compilation from prior writers, and as abounding with many valuable and original hints upon practical georgics.

Of provincial statements of agriculture we have not had more than three or four published in the course of the year; and these are almost exclusively confined to North Britain. From Dr. Smith's "General View of the Agriculture of the County of Argyle," we learn that very little of modern improvement of any kind has yet shed its benignant influence upon this

district: very little arable land, and a prodigious proportion of waste, and that upon every farm—few inclosures—barley grown chiefly—wheat neglected, and turnips scarcely known. Though abounding with bays, creeks and harbours, and chiefly thriving by its fisheries; no plantations of wood, valuable as timber must necessarily be on this account, and the timber actually employed principally brought from Wales and Norway. The ploughs are home-made—so heavy and clumsy that the weight alone is draught enough for a single horse; and hence four horses and a leader are generally employed even upon the lightest soils. The harrows are usually constructed in the rudest manner imaginable; the teeth being of timber, scarcely ever of iron, and the instrument being still in some places barbarously tied on the horse's tail. The cottages wretched almost beyond description, low, narrow, dark, damp and cold; scarcely a good farm-house throughout the entire county, and not an edifice entitled to notice except the duke of Argyle's palace at Inverary. Flax is one of the articles commonly cultivated; and the soil is so well adapted to it, that, were this article attended to as it ought to be, it might alone prove more valuable than the mines of Potosi. "When the crop is tolerably good, the produce of a single acre may be estimated at 15% on the field; at 20% when it comes from the mill; at 60% when spun into yarn; and at more than 100% when wrought into cloth and bleached. Thus a thousand acres (*alone*)—which would be but forty to every parish on the continent (county,) would yield materials for a yearly produce of 100,000%:" and, it should have been added, the whole

of these materials might be completed within the range of the county itself. The value of the fisheries might with a little attention and improvement be quadrupled; yet of their actual worth we may form a very favourable estimate, from our author's calculation that the herrings alone caught merely at Lochfine in 1794 and 1795, yielded more than 40,000*l.* each year. At this period, however, they produced above their common average. Of the other provincial fishes the chief are trout and salmon. The entire rental of the county amounts to nearly 10,000*l.*; the proprietors half a century back were about two hundred; the estates are now larger and in fewer hands, and the proprietors do not exceed a hundred and fifty-six. To transfer a patrimonial possession was formerly esteemed a reproach; by the frequency of the practice in late years the reproach no longer exists. This agricultural view affords the most evident proofs of correctness and of personal observation: yet we trust, if compared with the state of Argyleshire at the *present moment*, it will be found to fall far below the improvement it has actually attained: for though drawn up for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture, it consists of a survey of at least ten or perhaps twelve years ago. The spirit of agricultural improvement, which has recently pervaded Britain at large, has been more conspicuous in the North than in the South; and we can scarcely bring ourselves to conceive that Argyleshire alone has continued uninfluenced by the beneficial contagion.

A "General View of the Agriculture of the County of Clydesdale" is given us by Mr. John Naismith. Like the former *view*, it is drawn

up for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture; and, like that too, it affords us upon the whole but a gloomy and depressing prospect, notwithstanding many improvements which have avowedly been introduced of late years. Clydesdale, better known perhaps by the name of Lanarkshire, is about a third as large as Argyleshire; the latter containing in land and water nearly a million and half of acres, the former not quite half a million. Its subsoil, in almost every direction, and throughout great part of each of its three wards or grand divisions, is an almost intractable and permanently growing peat. Through this no water can filter, land-draining is rendered extremely difficult, and the tardy process of exhalation in wet seasons is alone trusted to, or nearly so, for a removal of the superfluous and destructive moisture. Upon the whole, these peat mosses seem at present to occupy nearly a third part of the entire extent of the county; they are incessantly accumulating; have already, by the cold and humidity they ever introduce into the atmosphere, destroyed a great proportion of those extensive forests, principally of oak, for which Clydesdale seems formerly to have been famous; and by their insidious encroachment on the arable soil, have curtailed the whole, and rendered much of what even now remains scarcely worth cultivating. The grand attention, therefore, of the Clydesdale ruralist should be to resist so inveterate an enemy; and the success which has accompanied an admirable project of Mr. John Smith of Ayrshire, whose name we record with heartfelt satisfaction, amidst the *patres patriæ* of North Britain, should stimulate every

every man to a similar system of conduct. He has very largely introduced the use of lime; and has proved by incontrovertible and extensive experiments, that the application of this substance to moss has been able to convert the mossy and inert soil into a soil of the most luxuriant fertility; and is at this moment growing large and thrifty crops of different grasses in situations that were formerly looked at with disgust, and regarded as altogether intractable. By these and other methods we have occasionally pointed out or alluded to, we trust the Clydesdale agriculturist may yet be able to obtain one of the noblest triumphs that can fall to the lot of man—that of subduing the thriftless and inveterate soil that surrounds him, of converting the land of famine into a garden of luxuriance, and of making the wilderness sing aloud for joy. The mines of Lanarkshire are a source of much opulence; in coals, iron, lead and lime, they are calculated to produce a yearly income of 494,500*l.*: of this the coals alone yield 312,000*l.*, and of course afford by far the highest source of wealth; while lime, which is considerably the lowest, brings to the common mineral stock not more than 14,000*l.* But the chief revenue of the county is derived from its cotton-manufactories, and its central trade at Glasgow: the cotton-manufactories occupy nearly half the hands of the entire county, and the city of Glasgow is the great mart of this and of every other commodity it produces.

We may here notice, as referring to an important though a distant part of the British empire, Mr. Colebrook's "Remarks on the Husbandry and internal Commerce of Bengal," which have lately

reached us, and were republished at Calcutta in 1803, from a treatise on the same subject in 1794, but which in their present form are enriched with a variety of new and highly interesting observations. From the best and most accurate means of calculation, derived from the actual number of husbandmen holding leases, and of artificers paying ground-rent, in conjunction with the average consumption of food—for we have here no regular census, no registers of births, marriages or deaths—our author concludes that Bengal, including the province of Benares, comprises twenty-seven millions of inhabitants; and vast as this population may appear when compared with that of the paramount or mother-country, we by no means think it excessive; having lately perused other tables drawn up with considerable judgement, which raise it to not less than thirty millions. This immense multitude is, for the most part, supported by harvests that are almost spontaneous, for nothing can be conceived more unattended to than agricultural concerns in Bengal; and were Nature not so bountiful in her productions, either the inhabitants must labour under an almost perpetual famine, or exercise a degree of skill and industry of which they give no example at present. In truth, the Bengal husbandman has but little stimulus to industry: for a system of greater wretchedness, oppression and uncertainty, was never acted upon nor devised even in Ireland; to whose system of progressive tyranny it approximates more closely than to any other agricultural code or practices we are acquainted with. The revenues of the state are chiefly farmed by Zemindars at certain annual

sums for certain extents of territory; these, first of all, collect the whole they are able to lay their hands on, and deposit the surplus in their own coffers; for though, as is sometimes the case, they agree with the government to collect certain sums, and receive out of such sums a stipulated salary as the reward of their labour, seldom indeed is it that they limit themselves to such stipulation; next, there is a perpetual display exhibited of extortion on the part of the landlord, and fraud on that of the tenant, connected with each other by the most indefinite and insecure tenures: as the former, however, exerts the utmost rapacity over the latter, so the latter plays the sub-tyrant over an inferior tenantry, among whom he fritters out and re-lets the land he has hired in the gross. These last are the real cultivators, and the rent exacted of them is usually half the produce in kind, or a sum of money equal to it. It often happens, moreover, that the cultivator, when he has obtained his fragment of a farm, has no property with which to stock it and procure implements. These, too, are to be had however; but the accommodator expects twenty-five per cent for all he advances even if the loan be repaid at the ensuing harvest, and fifty per cent if postponed to any period beyond it. The same pillage is pursued through every class; for the cultivator, thus preyed upon by those above him, preys in an equal degree upon the labourer below him. To every ploughman he allots, as a part of his wages, a small plot of his own land to be cultivated at the ploughman's leisure; and from the profits of such a cultivation he extorts, by way of rent, the same proportion that is extorted of him-

self; in other words, half its produce. Under such a miserable system of robbery upon robbery it is impossible that agriculture or any other art or science could thrive: here are few inclosures, no knowledge of a rotation of crops, manure never resorted to except for the growth of the sugar-cane, poppy, and other costlier plants; implements the most wretched and clumsy; roads almost impassable, and heavy awkward wains that could not be dragged without difficulty on the best highways in this country, whilst the numerous navigable streams that fall into the Ganges in every direction are never made use of. The chief articles of commerce are the sugar-cane, tobacco, opium and cotton. Silk and the silk-worm have for the most part travelled into other countries, and especially the warmer and more southerly of Europe. Indigo has lately been revived, and is now become a considerable article of trade throughout the whole of Bengal. Labour is from six to ten times cheaper here than in the West Indies, the wants of the natives being so few, and their desires so easily satisfied. The whole history tends to prove, and that in the clearest and most convincing manner, that were the trade to India thrown open, instead of being confined to a single company, it would afford, by rebound, a fund of industry and wealth to Great Britain at once incalculable and inexhaustible.

Nearly connected with the subject before us, we shall notice an excellent translation of a very excellent little work of M. Camus, "On the Teeth of Wheels, Pinions, &c." The object is to show that in mill-work, clock-work, and similar machinery, much of the

ease,

ease with which one wheel works upon another depends upon the form of their respective teeth or cogs ; which, when long-used and constructed of wood, are generally found to assume a particular curve in consequence of repeated action and reciprocal adjustment. This then should seem to be the direct form pointed out by nature, as the best we can ever employ, and which it should be our constant endeavour to copy. M. Camus, in the treatise before us, undertakes to trace out the principle, and gives rules for the accomplishment of this object, as well as for ascertaining what ought to be the number and size of the cogs in proportion to the diameter of the wheel. He takes it for granted, as the ground-work of his calculations, that the epicycloidal curve is that assumed by nature, and upon this basis calculates all his propositions. It is probable that his conjecture is nearly correct ; it is, at least, sufficiently true for every mechanical operation ; and the principle, whenever carried into practice, cannot fail of imparting an ease and brilliancy of action to every kind of machinery which it can never acquire otherwise.

“ A Treatise of Mechanics, theoretical, practical and descriptive : by Olinthus Gregory, of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. 8vo. 2 vols.” This is a work highly useful to the civil engineer—as containing both principles and practice—the former well supported, and the latter exemplified by a description of a great variety of machinery actually employed (and with success) in many important and extensive concerns, or which well deserves a trial, and has every chance of success. The first volume is devoted to a theoretical

view of the different branches of mechanical science—statics, dynamics, hydrostatics, hydrodynamics, pneumatics :—the second contains the practical application of the science ; and cannot be perused without improvement.

In the course of the year before us, Baron Masseres has added another volume, making the sixth, to his “ *Scriptores Logarithmici* ;” or collection of curious tracts on the nature and construction of logarithms. These tracts are twenty-two in number, some written in Latin, others in English ; some the production of deceased, others of living authors. Why those originally composed in Latin have not been translated into English, which they ought to have been, if the work be designed for our own meridian chiefly or altogether, or those composed in English have not been translated into Latin, provided it be chiefly intended for the continent, we are not informed. At present it will comparatively be but of little use in either view : for few foreign mathematicians are sufficiently acquainted with our own tongue to study fluxions in it, and not every English mathematician is sufficiently versed in Latin to pursue the object of his attention in a Latin dress. In themselves, however, the tracts are truly valuable ; and so far as we have perused them, there is scarcely any one that we could wish to have omitted. The chief contributors are, the baron himself, Dr. Mackay, Mr. Friend, Mr. Manning, the late Dr. Robert Denison, Fermat, and Huygens. An arranged prospectus of the contents of the volume is prefixed in the form of a preface, which occupies eighty-four pages of this bulky quarto ; the body of the work extends to nine hundred

and fifty-eight pages, making not less than a thousand and forty-two in the whole.

Mr. Bonnycastle has furnished us with a "Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry;" in an octavo volume, which may be profitably consulted by those who have made considerable proficiency in the science of logarithms, but has too little of the professional *graculus* for a beginner. There is, in truth, a great want of order and precision in the entire arrangement of the work, which is an almost inexcusable sin in a writer upon mathematical subjects; the language is often incorrect, and the authors of the present day are treated with a contempt to which many of them are by no means entitled, notwithstanding their heterodoxy upon the score of infinite positives and negatives.

Mr. Frend continues to supply the rising generation with useful and entertaining information upon the general science of astronomy by his "Evening Amusements"—a small octavo volume, published annually, in which a variety of striking appearances in the heavens, discoverable at distant evenings, for the current year, are accurately pointed out and accounted for. Upon the volume now before us it is useless to add any thing further than that it possesses all the merit of that of last year, which was noticed by us with respect.

"Tables of Simple Interest, and of Commission, Brokerage, or Exchange, at all the usual Rates per Cent. Constructed on a Plan entirely new, easy and mathematically accurate; to which is prefixed a complete Ready-reckoner, and several new Tables, useful in commercial Operations. By William Stenhouse, accountant, F.A.S.E."

We have nothing to object to as to the accuracy of this title; the labour it announces is fairly accomplished in the body of the book, which is an octavo of upwards of five hundred pages. In commercial concerns a work of this kind is of essential value; it spares an immensity of time and labour that may beneficially be appropriated to other concerns. We have here the fractions of farthings, which, notwithstanding the superior exactitude such a system of calculation displays, will often be found, if we mistake not, as burdensome in application as it must have been in original adjustment.

"Tables for computing the Weight of Hay, Cattle, Sheep and Hogs, &c. by Measurement, with a comparative Table of the Weight used at Edinburgh to those in Use at Smithfield and elsewhere. By John Ainslie. 13 Plates, square." The comparative table is, indeed, given, and to a certain extent must have its use; but the calculations in the body of the book computed upon the Edinburgh value, in which city weights and measures are equally different from those made use of in London, and this in a ratio that renders it difficult in many instances to designate the exact proportion, the Edinburgh pound, for example, without adding other instances, consisting of $17\frac{1}{2}$ ounces. In other respects these Tables will be found highly useful, and we can cordially recommend a new edition of them, adapted in every respect to the British metropolis. The plates should certainly be added, which give a more perfect idea than can be obtained otherwise, of the usual method of taking the girt of hay-stacks, pigs, cows and sheep.

Mr. Derrick's "Memoirs of the Rise

Rise and Progress of the Royal Navy" seem to rank in the present chapter rather than in any other. The numerous tables which accompany the work appear to be calculated with accuracy, and to give a fair estimate of the number of ships and tonnage, &c. of their several classes at different periods. Our author commences the history of the British navy with the reign of Henry VII. It is generally, we believe, dated from that of Henry VIII.; but as the former prince is well known to have been possess of *one* large ship, it certainly may be transferred to the period here proposed. As a book of frequent reference we can cordially recommend the publication before us.

All danger of invasion from the French coasts having been of late supposed to have ceased, the greater part of the attention which was antecedently bestowed on this subject has ceased with it; and we are no longer overpowered with those miscellaneous tracts on military and internal tactics, that at

one time swarmed forth from the press, and which perhaps, from the change of the political horizon, may soon swarm forth again. On the present occasion we shall only notice a single anonymous octavo, entitled "Observations on the Use of Light Armour." This volume is intended to revive the old practice of wearing a body-fence called jakes, and which were no other than quilted waistcoats, covered with narrow plates of thin iron, so intersected as to allow of every muscular motion. The rapidity of modern tactics, which has made side-arms of more consequence than almost at any time, and which has so often plunged hostile division into close contact with hostile division, seems to have made a revival of this defence an object of expediency. And though we cannot give much commendation to the bombast and glittering style in which this book is written, we have at least thought the observations it contains worthy of propagation, and have noticed it accordingly.

CHAPTER III.

MORAL AND POLITICAL.

Containing History, Voyages, Travels, Politics, Ethics, Education.

THE late disturbances and the present fermentation in Ireland have fixed the general eye of mankind upon this part of the united empire for many years, and still prevent it from wandering. Its history and its politics, the moral disposition and religion of the multitude, have been examined in every

possible attitude, and in publications of every shape and tendency. Still the subject is by no means exhausted, and we are yet called to the consideration of new histories, and new political tracts. We shall commence this chapter with noticing Mr. Gordon's "History of Ireland, from the earliest Accounts

to the Accomplishment of the Union with Great Britain in 1801, in two volumes, 8vo." This is a judicious and convenient compendium of Irish history: the language is in general correct and pure, though occasionally characterized by the creation of new terms, and attempts at new modes of phrasing. The political principles of our author lead him to a love of popular freedom and catholic emancipation: yet these principles are restrained within due bounds, and his loyalty is unimpeachable and satisfactory. The first volume opens with a geographical sketch of the country; examines with much brevity the traditionary periods of Druidism, and the earliest Christian missions, and treats with due contempt the wonderful legends which are generally crowded into this primæval epoch, and constitute its most prominent features. It proceeds in a steady and temperate track through the different centuries of real history, from the arrival of Robert Fitzstephen in Ireland, in 1170, and closes with the civil wars that devastated the country anterior to the commonwealth. The whole of these transactions are divided into twenty-six chapters. The second volume begins with twenty-seven, and extends to chapter forty-seven. It traces the affairs of Ireland under the discreet administration of Henry Cromwell, a man, perhaps, of as much disinterestedness and public spirit, as his father was of selfishness and personal ambition; the restoration of the Stuart dynasty, accompanied with enormous confiscations and popular commotions; the confiscations of the revolution, by which many families were re-instated in possessions that the restoration wrenched away from them; the

political animosities that divided the country through the period of American dissensions and hostilities; the influence of the French revolution on the feelings and inclinations of the people; the entire scope of the measures which have been pursued to obtain catholic emancipation; the provincial and secret committees formed at different times to carry these measures into effect; and the influence produced upon the hopes of the catholics by the accomplishment of the Union, with which great and glorious event it closes. The two prime benefits which our author tells us were expected by the Irish nation as the immediate consequence of the unity of empire, were "a commutation of tithes, and the abolition of all political disabilities in catholics. By the former," he continues, "would agriculture be encouraged, violent discontents against the maintenance of the protestant clergy be banished, and the clerical character rendered more respectable. The last consequence of commutation must be evident to all persons acquainted with the degrading circumstance of wrangling for tithes, and enforcing their payment on miserable peasants, to which the clergy are compelled by the present systems. By catholic enfranchisement would the union of the British people throughout the united kingdom be completed, and protestant ascendancy secured of the empire. That measures of such prime advantage should be so long prevented by a spirit of narrow policy, must be a matter of deep regret; for when powers on the continent of Europe are, by the natural course of events, growing into enormous magnitude by the absorption of the weaker states, what have the British *Islands* for the

preservation of their independence but their aqueous barriers, firm union at home, and a wholesome system of government, promotive particularly of agriculture, the great source and only solid foundation of national wealth for the maintenance of fleets and armies. To the Roman catholic religion I am far from being a friend: it *endungeons* human reason, the only light with which we are furnished by our Creator for discriminating between real and fictitious revelation. Its intolerant spirit has far surpassed that of all others, even the Mahomedan. For under what other system of worship can we find in history such courts of inquisition, such national massacres, and such numbers with solemn formality burned alive for a mere difference of opinion? By a mental thralldom it has degraded the human species, and paralysed their industry! But the spirit of papal intolerance is broken: the revolution of France has inflicted a mortal wound. Commixed with protestants, and *vested with no predominant power*, the catholics are as good members of society as any other description of men whatever: a more kind-hearted and obliging people than the catholics of Ireland I am persuaded can no where be found, and I must confess that I feel for them a strong affection; nor can I entertain a doubt of their inviolable attachment to British government, if they were once fully admitted to an unqualified participation of its benefits." We shall soon have occasion to advert to this subject more at large; and shall at present only observe, that however attached to the Irish catholics our author appears to be, as well from principle as affection, he feels more than half afraid of trusting them not-

withstanding: for if his proposition be true, that it is only while they are "*vested with no predominant power*, that the catholics are as good members of society as any other description of men," it must follow of necessity, that the moment they are enabled by any means to obtain a *predominancy of power*, they will cease to be as good members of society as other descriptions of men. Without entering into the question on either side at present, we shall merely remark, that we have not heard a stronger argument advanced by their enemies than is here advanced by one of their advocates, for continuing the restraints to which they have been so long subject. We believe it is not this opinion, but one far less hostile towards them, that has thus far prevented, and is, *for some years*, likely to prevent their shackles from being loosed, and their emancipation rendered complete.

"Journal of the Transactions in Scotland during the Contest between the Adherents of Queen Mary and those of her Son, 1570-1573, by Richard Bannatyne, Secretary to John Knox, 8vo. p. 50." This is a curious and important document. The peculiar situation of Bannatyne, while it rendered him inimical to the cause of this accomplished princess, afforded him abundant opportunities of acquiring minute information upon subjects that must have been inaccessible to every one without the pale of the *corps diplomatique*: and there is much reason to suppose that the work before us was drawn up with the express purpose, as we knew it was offered with the express wish, of being printed among the memorials selected for publication by the general assembly of the kirk, soon after the death of Knox. Our au-

thor, however, for some cause we are unacquainted with, did not succeed in his application; and it has hence remained as a manuscript authority, to be consulted by all who are desirous, and have opportunity of plunging into the most genuine archives of Scottish history. Into whose care it was at first committed we know not. Towards the beginning of the last century it was in the possession of Robert Miln, and the handwriting was generally supposed to be Bannatyne's own: it bears credible evidence of being a manuscript of his own æra, if not his actual autograph. In 1748 it was transferred to the advocate's library, at Edinburgh, where it has continued ever since, and has been examined and quoted by Crawford, Goodall, and other historiographers. In its present state, however, it is imperfect, the first eighteen pages being wanting: these are supposed to have opened with an account of the death of regent Murray, and perhaps with the circumstances of the murder of Darnley; the imprudent marriage of Mary with Bothwell; the rebellion that ensued; the defeat of the Scottish queen; her imprisonment at Lochlevin, and escape into England, that immediately preceded this atrocity; and our editor, Mr. John Graham Dalyell, has filled up the introductory vacuity with a sketch of these events in a manner that does credit to his chronological talents. The journal of Bannatyne immediately succeeds this introduction, accompanied with notes from the editor, which has so much pleased us, that we regret they have been so sparingly interspersed. At the close of the journal are subjoined, 1. Letters from Secretary Maitland, and the Earl of Mortown, written in 1572. 2. An Account of the Death

of the Earl of Huntly, in 1576. 3. Confession of the Earl of Mortown, 1581. 4. Mutual Aggressions by the contending Factions: a document, in point of time, anterior to the three preceding, and exhibiting an anachronism that might easily have been avoided.

“Memoirs of the Life of Colonel Hutchinson, Governor of Nottingham Castle, Town, &c. with original Anecdotes of many of the most distinguished of his Contemporaries, and a summary Review of Public Affairs: written by his Widow, Lucy, Daughter of Sir Allen Apsley, Lieutenant of the Tower, &c. now first published from the original Manuscript, by the Rev. Julius Hutchinson, 4to.” This is by far the most valuable piece of national history that has reached us in the course of the year to which our labours are directed. It is true that it blends private history with public; but we cannot consent that it should on this account sink into a book of mere family biography: the excellent editor of the work, and descendant of its exemplary author, has well characterized it when he tells us that it chronologizes “a period most remarkable in the British annals, written one hundred and fifty years ago, by a lady of elevated birth, of a most comprehensive and highly cultivated mind, herself a witness of many of the scenes she describes, and active in several of them.” There is a moral and literary elegance and excellence in the midst of comparative barbarity and rudeness; a liberality of sentiment in the midst of bigotry; an intrepid honesty of heart in the midst of political defection and religious hypocrisy; a delicacy and tenderness of domestic feeling in the midst of camps and chaos—which stamp a value upon these memoirs that few others

others can boast, and no others exceed. We have given the most convincing proof we could offer of our thorough persuasion of their merit, by the ample extracts we have made from them in a preceding department of this volume: we beg the editor to accept our sincere thanks for the treat he has afforded us, and we sincerely lament that they have thus long been secluded from the public eye. They are a gem of inappreciable value, whether regarded as national documents, or as specimens of polite literature. It would be unjust in us not to add, that the original autograph is at this moment in the editor's hands.

But literary merit, domestic virtue, and moral goodness, are not confined to any single political party, dependent upon any individual set of diplomatic characters, or religious opinions: and we now allude to an anonymous, but, we believe, authentic publication of "Original Memoirs, written during the Great Civil War," of which by far the larger part consists of memoirs of sir Henry Slingsby, written by himself, and containing a tolerably fair, and very interesting account of the facts and manners of the times in which he lived and suffered. Sir Henry Slingsby was a man of a warm and honest heart, and an unquenchable perseverance in the cause of the Stuart dynasty: yet by intermarriages he was closely connected with the chief families of the opposite party; and hence, notwithstanding his frequent attempts to gain over the officers of the different castles in which he was successively confined, and to which in consequence of a communication of these various tamperings to the protector, he was successively transferred he was not brought to his trial till nearly three years after

his arrest, which was at Hull, in 1655. Cromwell was afraid of juries, as well he might be; and hence he had the audacity to invent another sort of tribunal, which he called, *the high court of justice*, in which the commissioners, chosen from his own creatures, united the characters of judges and jurors. It was before this court sir Henry Slingsby was arraigned: he denied its jurisdiction, and demanded a trial by jury. His demand was not complied with; he was tried before the high court, May 25, 1658, found guilty of high treason, and, on June 8th, beheaded on Tower Hill:—a sentence to which he submitted with much fortitude. His remains were deposited in a chapel belonging to his family, in the church at Knaresborough. The other articles in the collection before us are of less interest. They consist of "Memoirs of Capt. John Hodgson, of Coalley-Hall, near Halifax," containing a narrative of his persecutions, in consequence of the Restoration, as well as of the movements of the parliamentary army, anterior to this event, in which he commanded a company: but the style is coarse, and the manner uninviting. The additional papers are official documents respecting Cromwell's campaign in Scotland. These, as records of authority, may be of service to the historian, but few besides the historian will ever peruse them.

"History of the Campaign of 1805, in Germany, Italy, the Tyrol, &c. by William Burke, 8vo." The short but important series of transactions that first put Germany into the hands of Bonaparte; that enabled him, by a single manœuvre, to swallow up the grand army of Austria; to seize possession of its capital within three weeks from the commencement of the campaign; within

within three weeks more to spread his victorious career from the Rhine to the Bug; and within two months to overthrow the remainder of the Austrian forces, concentrated and united with the grand army of the Russian empire;—offers us a train of events that we shall in vain look for in any other part of universal history: the present war, indeed, gives us something of a parallel; but, excepting on its outset, the career of Bonaparte was by no means so rapid, though on its close his moderation to Prussia has been less distinguished than that to Austria. To investigate the springs and causes of so wonderful a success on the part of the French, is to engage in an important, but an arduous undertaking. Mr. Burke, in the history before us, has pointed out some of them; but there are yet several which seem totally to have escaped his attention, and others to which he has attached too little moment. His book is, indeed, written more for general information than for professional study; it is statistic rather than military, and picturesque and illustrative rather than statistic. It is probable that the rapid conquest of Austria depended, in a great degree, on the supineness of the inhabitants, and their total indifference to the existing dynasty: but Prussian Poland did not fall so easily, although the same cause not only existed, but to an infinitely greater effect; and it was expected that the inhabitants would have flocked to the French standard with universal acclamation. If the people were cold, and cold they undoubtedly were even to the freezing point, the army was corrupt, and the prince misguided.

Under such circumstances, half the ordinary courage and half the ordinary skill of Bonaparte would have been sufficient to have commanded success: every thing combined in his favour; and brilliant as was his triumph, it was achieved rather by the enemies he had to oppose than the army he had to lead forward.

Mr. Bigland has adapted, by a second and enlarged edition, his “Letters on the Modern History and Political Aspect of Europe,” to the meridian of the present hour. We have now sixteen letters, of which the first is introductory: the second divides Europe into three primary powers, France, Russia, and Britain; various secondary powers, into which class he has transferred Spain, Austria, Prussia, and Sweden, and multitudes that are altogether dependent. We are next carried, in letter iii, to St. Domingo, and then back again, in letters vi, vii, viii, ix, and x, to Prussia, Italy, Spain, and Portugal. In letter xi, we re-cross the Atlantic, and are called to a soporific discourse upon the predisposing causes of an ultimate and necessary separation between all large and powerful colonies and their parent country. In letter xii, we are hurried back again, though not by the North-west passage, to Russia. In letter xiii, we visit Denmark; and in letters xiv, xv, and xvi, make an agreeable excursion up the Mediterranean to Egypt, on whose shores we cast anchor for the last time, and are allowed to idle our hours away as long as we please. The work is pleasantly written, and the author shews himself sufficiently acquainted with modern politics for the purpose he has undertaken: yet a little more method would have given it additional

onal value, notwithstanding the desultory character under which it shelters itself; for order is as consistent with a series of letters as a series of mathematical problems.

The surrender of Buenos Ayresto general Beresford, and the attention which was hence called towards the South American continent, in the way of general trade and politics, have not produced such a variety of publications as we expected. In fact, in neither of these lines have we met with any thing worthy of notice; and, from the late events that have occurred, the subject is now likely to be resigned to a deeper oblivion than ever. In the way of chorography, or travels, we have met with but one attempt, and that a most barren and meagre account indeed, but still welcome for want of a better. This account consists of "Travels from Buenos Ayres, by Potosi to Lima," hastily drawn up by M. Anthony Zachariah Helms, after his return from this settlement, in which he had for three years (from 1788 to 1792) resided as superintendent of the mines, and inserted in Zach's German Ephemeris. To this compendious notice the anonymous translator has added a sufficient body of annotations and topographical descriptions to expand it to the size of a moderate *duodecimo*, numbering a hundred and eighty pages. From this statement we learn that Buenos Ayres contains a population of twenty-five thousand inhabitants; Saltz, situate on the river Arias, of nearly ten thousand; and Potosi, of a hundred thousand, including slaves. That from Buenos Ayres to Potosi is sixteen hundred and seventeen geographical miles, communicating by passable roads, and tolerably

furnished post-houses: that the royal mines of the kingdom of La Plata are most miserably and ignorantly worked: that they produce at present a revenue of four millions and a half of piastres; and that if they were worked as they ought to be, "if all the veins of ore were sought for, and wrought with but moderate skill and diligence, this kingdom alone might yield every year twenty, and even thirty millions of piastres." Lima, the capital of Peru, is agreeably described, and represented as a most delightful and desirable situation, were it not for the tremendous earthquakes to which it is so subject, and on account of which the inhabitants do not venture to build their houses more than a single story high. For the rest the reader must consult the volume itself. The appendix is a useful compilation.

"Notes on the West Indies, by George Pinckard, M.D. &c." 3 vol. 8vo. These notes, as we learn from the continuation of the title-page, which might have answered all the purposes of an introductory chapter, "were written during the expedition under the command of the late gen. sir Ralph Abercrombie; including observations on the Island of Barbadoes, and the Settlements captured by the British troops upon the coast of Guinea: likewise remarks relating to the Creoles, and Slaves of the western Colonies, and the Indians of South America, with occasional Hints regarding the Seasoning, or Yellow Fever, of hot Climates." The patient reader may here glean entertainment and instruction, but the ground over which he must toil is, too frequently, bare and unthrifty, with scarcely the appearance of a single husk. Our author writes best when he writes

writes directly from the scenery around him : there is a candour in his narration to which we can implicitly trust, and a benevolence in his feelings which interests us warmly in his fate. But Dr. Pinckard is unfortunately not content with being a mere narrator of facts :— he is perpetually endeavouring to combine with this character those of a sentimentalist and of a classic : almost every description is terminated with a string of reflections that are as pathetic as the glitter of fine language and false imagery can make them, and almost every reflection is interwoven with scraps of what would have been latinity, had not the author totally forgotten, not only his syntax, but even his declensions and conjugations. We have scarcely space for references, but will just hint to him, against another edition of this work, which we should like to see in an abridged form, that it was some time before we understood what he means, when he tells us, that they at length appeared before the summoning officer in *propriis personibus*. We will also venture to hint to him, against the same period, that it would add to the value of his performance if he were to spell his vernacular terms more correctly on particular occasions ; and for this purpose take leave to acquaint him that the inverted action of the stomach, during sickness, is not expressed, as he has expressed it in many places,—or we should have blamed the printer instead of the writer,—by the word *reaching*, but *retching*. As proceeding from a medical practitioner, we were the more surprised at this gross vulgarism : the fashionable world, indeed, is never less at home than when at home ; yet we should not be justified in applying this apophthegm to Dr. Pinckard, who has

given evident marks of professional observation and judgment.

“ A Voyage to Cochinchina in the Years 1792 and 1793, by John Barrow, Esq.” Mr. Barrow is well and deservedly known as the author of two of the best books of travels we have received of late years ; the one containing travels in Southern Africa, the other in China : accounts of both which, and extracts from both which, will be found in our antecedent volumes. The present publication may be regarded as a kind of appendix to the two : for although it be chiefly directed to a description of the situation, population, history, and manners of Cochinchina, it gives us also fresh information concerning the interior of the Cape of Good Hope. That tongue or projection of land of about thirteen degrees in length, which joins the Chinese empire in the twenty-second degree of south latitude, and may be regarded as a geographical appendage to it, and which, by a vast ridge of mountains running down its middle from north to south, terminates the Birman empire, both eastward and westward, is the object of our author’s first and principal attention. Of this neck of land Tungquin, Cochinchina, and Tsiompa, according to our common maps, occupy successively the western route, and Cambodia the eastern. “ These names,” our author tells us, “ thus usually marked on our charts, are, however, utterly unknown to the natives, except Tungquin. The other three, collectively, are called An-nan, and are distinguished by three grand divisions : the first, contained between the southernmost point which forms the extremity of the gulf of Siam, and which lies in about the ninth degree of latitude, as far as to the twelfth degree,

gree, is called *Don-nai*: the second, extending from hence to the fifteenth degree, *Chang*; and the third, between this and the seventeenth degree, where the kingdom of Tungquin commences, is called *Hué*." Mr. Barrow, in the modern political history of the country, gives a very interesting account of a rebellion excited in the year 1774, by three brothers, who were natives, and who succeeded in dethroning the king, who appears to have been an amiable man, and afterwards in murdering him, as well as all the royal family who could be discovered, and in passing an edict of banishment against the rest. By the friendship and vigilance, however, of a very honest and excellent French missionary, the rightful heir to the throne was concealed, conducted in safety out of the kingdom, received a suitable education, and after contending with romantic difficulties, succeeded in dispossessing the usurping dynasty of the whole of the Cochinchinese empire, except Tungquin, to which a son of one of the usurpers had fled, and against whom he was marching in 1800, at which period the narrative closes. Our author examines, in his concluding chapter, the advantages which might accrue to Great Britain from opening a commercial intercourse with this country; and they appear so considerable as to be worth attempting. The Cochinchinese government is devoid of the rigid jealousy of that of China; our trade to Canton is, in the highest degree, precarious, and should it be totally prohibited, it might still be carried on by Chinese junks through the medium of a settlement in the former kingdom: independently of which, Cocinchina offers in itself an inexhaustible supply of the most valuable timbers, as well as

of other important materials for the different markets of Asia and Europe. The latter part of the volume before us, consists as we have already observed, of a translation of a Dutch journal, written by Mr. Truter, who, in company with Mr. Somerville, was dispatched by the Cape government, in 1801, to procure horned cattle of the natives to the north-east of the colony, in order to replace the numbers which had lately perished in the settlement from a most sickly season. The journal is well worth translating: it gives an interesting, and apparently a faithful, picture of the simple and benevolent savages that, under the name of Kaffers, Hottentots, Koras (probably a mixed breed), Borjesmans, Booshuanas, and Barroloos, progressively inhabit this untravelled country. Let the proud philosopher of Europe, who disclaims a common origin with these simple people, and flatters himself that he is descended from a nobler stem; let the advocate for the slave-trade, who perceives no inhumanity or breach of moral duty in sending the poor conquered or kidnapped African to worse than a Smithfield market, read and deliberate on these pages; and if they do not drop their high-toned pretensions, and abandon the system they have espoused, it is not argument that can convince their heads, nor feeling that can penetrate their bosoms.

We congratulate the world of maritime science and adventure, upon the appearance of captain Burney's second part or volume of his "*Chronological History of the Voyages and Discoveries in the South Sea or Pacific Ocean*." The merit which we have awarded to the first part is equally to be found throughout the whole of the present. The same circumspection in

in the choice of authority, the same taste in arrangement, the same liberality of sentiment and purity of diction. Its chronological range extends from 1620 to 1759, and comprehends successively the voyages of Pedro Sarmiento de Gamboa, Cavendish, Juan de Fuca, sir Richard Hawkins, Alvaro de Mendana, Purchas, Van Noost, Sebastian Vizcaino, Quinos, and Torres, Spilbergen, Maire and Schouten, Garcia and De Nodal, and Theodorci Hertoge. Another part or volume will, perhaps, bring the present undertaking to its conclusion. But we trust that captain Burney will not, with this undertaking, terminate *his own* maritime labours. Much, very much, still remains to be explored; nor do we know of a pilot who can conduct us around the rest of the globe with such security and precision as himself. We recommend to him a complete circumnavigation of the world, and are confident of his success in undertaking it: the task is arduous, but the skill of the master is equal to it.

Mr. Stanier Clarke has also published a second volume in continuation of his "Naufragia, or Historical Memoirs of Shipwrecks, and of the providential Deliverance of Vessels." He here acknowledges, that in his former volume he admitted some accounts that were altogether fabulous, and allows that among these ought to rank the adventures of "Richard Falconer," and of "Robert a Machin." In the present volume our author is certainly more select, but not sufficiently so. We see no entire romance recorded for actual history, but many romantic adventures asserted as real facts. If the work should be persevered in, we trust it will still improve—there is sufficient need of improvement.

But it is time to return nearer home. France, that inexhaustible mine for the writers of our own country, of whatever character or description, critics, historians, politicians, novellists, and tourists, has furnished us during the past year with as many "states," "travels," "tours," and "recollections," as if the two countries had been on terms of the profoundest tranquillity and most intimate intercourse. Some of these are not confined to France, but merely relate to it in conjunction with various adjoining countries; one or two, on the contrary, are limited to Paris alone; some of them are the result of observations made anterior to the present war; and others the actual and immediate consequence of it, from detention at Verdun. The catalogue to which we shall limit the few remarks we can afford upon a field that has been so incessantly gleaned over of late, shall comprise the five following publications: Mr. Pinkerton's "Recollections of Paris," Mr. Worsley's "Account of the State of France, and its Government during the three last Years;" Mr. Forbes's "Letters from France, written in the Years 1803 and 1804, including a particular Account of Verdun, and the Situation of the British Captives in that City;" and Col. Thornton's "Sporting Tour through various Parts of France in the Year 1802." We can only give the general character of these publications as they struck us upon a cursory perusal. Those who would become petits maitres, and be instructed in the gallantry of the French ladies, must consult the pages of Mr. Pinkerton, who seems in his work before us equally to have forgotten his age and infirmities, his velvet cap and morning-gown;

And redolent of joy and youth;
To breathe a second spring

in the new dress of a *cher ami*, and surrounded by a *coterie* of Parisian fair. For a plain, unvarnished, but not uninteresting narration, of the more striking manners and appearances of the country through which he passed, we refer the reader to Mr. Lemaitre. Mr. Forbes and Mr. Worsley were both prisoners at Verdun, from which captivity they have, fortunately for themselves, been since liberated: they agree in their general statement of this situation; and in their travels homeward the former gives us the best account of the accommodations, and the latter of the trade and manufactures of the towns they passed through. Colonel Thornton's Tour is written with much of his usual spirit, and altogether in his usual style. In regard to the various kinds of sport he was in pursuit of, he appears to have been disappointed; or at least we may assert that he does not seem to have been by any means so successful as in Scotland. This last work is written in the form of letters, addressed to the author's friend lord Darlington. In the title-page to his work he professes to give "General Observations on the Arts, Sciences, Agriculture, Husbandry, and Commerce of France; and Strictures on the Customs and Manners of the French People." We cannot say that all this is false, for a few hints upon these different subjects are sometimes thrown forwards: but we have met with nothing prominent, certainly with nothing that ought to lay the foundation for a title-page. From the concurring accounts of Mr. Forbes and Mr. Worsley, it appears to us that the English captives are as comfortable at Verdun as English

captives may ever expect to be any where. On the arrival of the first division in this city provisions of all kinds were very cheap; a considerable advance, however, has taken place since--yet even at present they are not exorbitant. In the summer of 1805 there were about seven hundred prisoners at Verdun (Mr. Forbes gives us their names), about the same number at Valenciennes, a thousand at Givet, and about another thousand scattered over other places. The government allowance to each is a pound and half of ammunition bread daily, the common bread of the country, manufactured of wheat and rye; and, when well made, pleasant and nourishing, together with three pounds of beef by the week, fat and good when fairly served according to the contract, but often, through the speculation of the contractor, of a deteriorated quality. The governor, Gen. Mirion, is an excellent and liberal-minded man, and contributes all in his power to mitigate the burdens of captivity. The vintage season in France, and the hilarity that accompanies it, are well described by Mr. Forbes; from another part of whose letters we also perceive that the ease and freedom, the amenity and polish of the old French character, is still preserved in several of the ancient chateaux which have fortunately never changed their masters. Upon the concurrent testimony of all, Bonaparte appears to have a rooted dislike to Englishmen, and whatever is English. No Englishmen are allowed to behold him through whatever town he may pass in which they are stationed, and are, on this account, ordered to keep themselves retired: to English talents he can pay no compliment, and the sight of English manufact-

tures

tures is sure to irritate his feelings. The French themselves are not heavily taxed, but the imposts on the conquered countries are very severe. What the last seems chiefly to complain of, however, according to Mr. Worsley, is "the cruel and heart-rending law of the conscription, which requires the inhabitants to part with their sons when arrived at the age of manhood, to fight the battles of a power they hate, and to die for a man whose government they abominate." And upon this subject we apprehend that the citizens of France had of late as much to complain of as the allied or subjected powers. The register of births, and deaths, and exchange of situations, is so rigidly attended to, that it is almost impossible for any man to escape taking his chance for enrolment as soon as he becomes of age. The term of service is limited to six years: substitutes are allowed, but it is extremely difficult to obtain them, and their demand is of course enormously high.

While the French were overrunning Italy, we learn from Mr. Lemaitre they seldom encroached on private museums, notwithstanding their lust for carrying away every thing of public value; and among many unjustifiable regulations they introduced one at Rome which we should be sorry to find repealed at any time. The frequency of assassination in this city is well known to every one, as it is also that the assassin has hitherto been left almost entirely to the vengeance of the relations of the deceased, the police seldom or never interfering to punish the atrocity. Immediately on the arrival of the French, the commander in chief issued a proclamation that no protection should screen murder; that

the man who put another to death, under whatever pretext, or in whatever manner, should be instantly shot: assassinations were still committed for a day or two, but the certain and uniform execution of the sentence soon put an end to the practice, and no more instances were heard of it while the French continued in possession of the Papal states.

From the different accounts before us, it should seem difficult to allot the pre-eminence of female beauty and attractions to any individual nation. Nothing can equal the life and gaiety and captivating graces of the French women in the opinion of Mr. Pinkerton: it is true that an unlucky but very general report asserts them to be somewhat too free of their favours, and at times even "without previous selection, difficulty, and devotion; but innumerable" continues our siver-haired gallant "are the young and beautiful females who preserve the *sanctity* of the marriage-bed; and, amidst a *charming freedom of manners, and even a great friendship for another man, are models of maternal tenderness and conjugal fidelity.*" Such is Mr. Pinkerton's opinion of French ladies, and his model of the best and most virtuous French matrons! Not so Mr. Lemaitre: in his estimation the Austrian ladies are the handsomest on the continent—their complexions the fairest, their countenances the most expressive, their manners the most elegant, and their conversation the most lively. And we like the picture the better, because we here meet with no hint of ciccisbeos, and no details of such conversation as immediately follows the above passage in Mr. Pinkerton, and which he ventures to give as a specimen of fine taste and conjugal honesty;

honesty; but in which, if we know any thing of the world, no woman could ever indulge for a moment provided she had any conjugal honesty to lose. Yet Mr. Lemaitre is not so little of a true patriot as to prefer even the Austrian ladies to the English: the Austrian fair, it seems, are unrivalled on the continent, but they are surpassed by the fair of our own island. It is something farther in their favour that the queen of Sicily, no indifferent judge of the English character, whether male or female, appears to think the same. The incident related upon this subject by Mr. Lemaitre is pleasant, and we will not suppress it. When the English ladies, and the lady of our traveller among the rest, were introduced to her Sicilian majesty at Naples, the only English gentleman who was allowed to be present, was Mr. Drummond, the English minister. The queen was extremely gracious, and expressed much happiness at seeing so many English ladies at her court, "for I esteem, said she, the venerable character of your queen, and think very highly of British females in general: they are good daughters, good wives, and good mothers." The compliment was general, and Mr. Drummond thought himself the most proper person, in consequence of his official capacity, to return some token of gratitude, which he did by making his bow. "Point de révérence, Monsieur," exclaimed the queen, "I speak of English ladies, and by no means of English men: ils sont libertins, mauvais sujets, buveurs, inconstans--Si j'étois homme, je prendrais une de vos compatriotes pour ma femme; mais Dieu me défend d'un mari Anglais!"

But we loiter abroad too long. In Mr. Carr's "Stranger in Ireland," 1806.

land; or a Tour in the Southern and Western Parts of that Country in the Year 1805," we have met with a very pleasant and humorous compilation. The writer has sufficient powers of his own: and, from the specimens he has exhibited, we wish he had more frequently consulted them; but he has in too many instances chosen the secondary praise of being a judicious book-maker, to the original merit of being a good author.

In our topographical productions of the year we are too rich to allow us to enter into any thing like a detailed account, inviting as is the subject to us. Of Litchfield we have two histories to notice: the one a short and much improved re-print in octavo of Mr. Jackson's "Memoirs of the City and Cathedral of Litchfield:" the other a huge quarto publication, by Mr. Harwood, entitled "The History and Antiquities of the Church and City of Litchfield." We do not find that they essentially differ, except as to size, and consequently as to price. The former, in a compressed style, and close print, giving us the entire spirit of the latter, which is unnecessarily diffuse and dilated. In Mr. Yates's "Illustration of the Monastic History and Antiquities of the Town and Abbey of St Edmund's Bury," we have the first part of a studious and diligent work, and the first effort of an author desirous of distinction in antiquarian literature. The quarto volume before us is upon the whole a well arranged selection of matter, not difficult to be acquired: and had it been compressed to half its size might have been possessed of double its value. But it is a far more difficult thing for a young man to drive his pen in a perpendicular than in a horizontal direction. We shall revert to this "Illustration," however, when it is completed.

The pleasure, and, we trust, the success which have accompanied Dr. Whitaker in his history of Whalley, have induced him to extend his survey; and he has now presented us, in a quarto volume, closely decorated with views, but unsupplied with a map, with "The History and Antiquities of the Deanery of Craven, in the County of York." It possesses the merits of, and is designed as a companion to, the author's former work. It would be superfluous to add more.

Mr. Wheeler has been very assiduous in collecting materials for presenting us with "The History and Antiquities of Stratford-upon-Avon," upon a small duodecimo scale; and we do not like his labours the worse on this account. The volume contains, in a close compass, a great deal of authentic, well-arranged, and interesting matter: gives a good description of the collegiate church, enters largely into the life of Shakespeare, details copies of several original documents relating both to him and his family; and offers a biographical sketch of other eminent characters, connected with Stratford by birth or long residence.

As smaller or less valuable publications we have to notice Mr. Moffat's "History of the Town of Malmesbury," in a thin octavo, embellished with engravings: Mr. Turner's "Collections for the History of the Town and Soke of Grantham," containing various authentic and original memoirs of sir Isaac Newton, from manuscripts in the possession of the earl of Portsmouth: Mr. Jenkins's "History and Description of the City of Exeter and its Environs, ancient and modern, civil and ecclesiastical:" and the following useful but, for the most part, temporary sketches published anonymously;

"Walk through Leeds, with an Account of the Woollen Manufacture of the West-Riding of Yorkshire;" "Lambeth Palace; illustrated by a Series of Views;" "Picture of Liverpool, with a Plan of the Town;" "Manchester Guide," containing a brief history of the towns of Manchester and Salford, the public buildings, &c. the whole illustrated by a map: "Hereford Guide," containing a concise history of the city and the public buildings that decorate it.

We close this branch of the present department by announcing the publication of the first volume of the very splendid and comprehensive "Magna Britannia," the joint production of the Rev. Sam. Lysons, rector of Rodmarton, Gloucestershire, &c. and of Sam. Lysons. esq. keeper of his majesty's records in the Tower. This voluminous work is projected upon the plan of Camden's, of the same name, and the well known abilities of the authors, and still more the specimen now before us, induce us to indulge a very high expectation of its general merit. Of the entire extent of the work we know not; and we suppose the authors themselves could not very readily inform us. It must however be upon a very large and expensive scale, as the present volume, a thick quarto of 742 pages, contains only the three counties of Bedfordshire, Berkshire, and Buckinghamshire.—A series of views of the most interesting and picturesque objects in Great Britain, accompanied with brief descriptions, has been published, as far as the first part only, under the title of "Britannia Depicta," by the late Mr. W. Byrne, and is professedly a companion to the voluminous text of Messrs. Lysons. From the excellence of the engravings before us, we trust this
supplementary

supplementary work will be continued notwithstanding its present suspension from the death of the original projector.

On general politics the work that has best pleased us, and which appears of most consequence in the class is sir Robt. Clayton's translation of Filangieri's "*Science of Legislation*," which he has reduced from eight volumes, which they fill in the original, to two moderate-sized octavos in English. Gaetano Filangieri is esteemed among the Neapolitans, and we believe among the Italians in general, their first political writer: his *Scienza della Legislazione* has unquestionably very great merit, and the more so as it was the work of a young man—the author dying at the age of thirty-six, in the year 1788, universally esteemed and lamented. A work that comprises such subjects as the origin of society, general principles of legislation, the formation of new laws and the obliteration of obsolete—hereditary nobility and other distinctions of rank—population, and the best means of promoting it—property real and personal—entailed estates, monasteries, and ecclesiastical property in general—standing armies—public morals—agriculture and the corn-trade—arts, manufactures, and commerce—taxation—public records and punishments—national and established religions;—a work, we say, that comprises such subjects, that examines them in their most difficult bearings—that is always respectable in its reasonings, generally correct in its doctrines, often peculiarly acute in its observations, and comprehensive in its views—that has anticipated much of the knowledge of the present day, and affords hints for future improvement,—cannot but confer a very high character on the writer, and

be well worth vernaculizing among ourselves. In this last respect sir Robt. Clayton is amply entitled to the thanks of the public—for his version is at once accurate and elegant—and, independently of the toil of translation, he has often very judiciously printed at the foot of the page such entire passages from other writers as are merely referred to without being quoted by Filangieri himself.

"An Enquiry into the Principles of Civil and Military Subordination, by John Macdiarmid, esq." 8vo. Mr. Macdiarmid we have met before, in consequence of his "*Enquiry into the System of National Defence*," and what we then thought of him we think of him still, that he is—a man of reflexion and of method, of profound cogitation rather than accurate judgement, of minute system rather than of flexible manners, a man of the closet rather than of the world. He has good talents, and he offers many important hints—but he never suffers any of them to slip from him accidentally;—he is a drill-serjeant in metaphysics, and every thing is regularly marshalled in rank and file. His present Enquiry is divided into four parts; of which the first two treat of natural subordination, the third of artificial subordination, and the fourth of military. The first three parts seem to be little more than introductory to the last, in which our author certainly appears to his greatest advantage. After a pretty close examination into the nature of subordination in our own country, through a variety of heads numerically arranged, he arrives at this conclusion, which, to speak the truth, flows fairly enough from his premises: "from these observations it appears that the laws and usages by which the election of

military officers is at present regulated in Great Britain, not only afford no provision for securing the competency of those officers at the period of their appointment, but have a direct tendency to preclude every chance of their being competent at that period. But we have seen that military subordination must necessarily be ineffectual, or, according to a common expression, must be at an end, while those who command, and on whom most depends, are incapable of executing the duties of their station."

The general subject of the army leads us to that class of pamphlets which endeavours to point out the best means of recruiting it. In this tribe several have appeared that are entitled to a short notice, the whole of which have a direct bearing on the system lately proposed by Mr. Windham, and, during the administration of which he formed a part, actually carried into execution—the grand object of which was, as our readers may in general recollect, to put the army on such a footing of respectability and profit, that it should be a line of life and a source of provision eagerly sought after by all the lower ranks of society; while the means by which he proposed to obtain this object were, first, to increase the pay of soldiers and subalterns, and the allowance to invalids, the accomplishment of which point he conceived he would be enabled to effect out of the enormous bounties hitherto offered for enlisting, bounties which in such case would be rendered totally unnecessary, and consequently by a suppression of which his own system might be substantiated, without producing any additional expense to the nation;—and secondly, by suppressing that almost insufferable relic of slavery in a free country—and

which is totally inconsistent with all respectability whatever—enlistment for life:—in the room of which Mr. Windham proposed an enlistment for a certain term of time. The first pamphlet we shall notice is entitled a "Vindication of Mr. Windham's Military Plan." This is published anonymously, but the author needed not to have been afraid of subscribing his name to the title. It examines with clearness and precision the state of the different military forces in this country under the system anterior to that of Mr. Windham, the regulars, the militia, the volunteers—points out the chief directions in which they not merely clashed, but completely frustrated the operation of each other, and successfully vindicates the new theory. This enquiry is pursued through six sections, which progressively discuss the following subjects—the necessity of a reform—repeal of the additional force act—abolition of the militia ballot—enlistment for a limited term of time—augmentation of military rewards and salaries. In the "Letters of Commentarius" we have a second "Plan for recruiting and improving the Situation of the British Army." The plan is not essentially different from that proposed in the preceding publication, but it enters more widely into the consideration of the general subject, and evinces much accuracy of judgement but very great inaccuracy of style. The points chiefly discussed in the course of these letters are, the volunteer system, the militia, the cavalry, artillery, foot-guards, veteran battalions, rank of officers, national army, military councils, military rewards, punishments, dress, and discipline. The writer is altogether of the new school, and in some points would carry his reformation

much too far. Thus in his seventh letter he strenuously objects to the whole system of purchasing into the service; observing that the richer classes of every country are necessarily the least hardy and most effeminate of the entire population, and commenting on what he imagines the absurdity of selling to such persons the defence of the country. We do not see the necessity that is here asserted; but admitting the truth of the axiom, we would ask this writer whether he thinks the respectability of the army, or the general security of the country, would be best promoted by a total seclusion of men of birth and property? if not, how does he expect that such can ever enter into the army? would he advise that they commence their military career in the ranks? are our generals and our admirals to rise from common soldiers and sailors alone? We should accede to his proposition in some degree, if mere corporeal bulk or muscular strength were the only powers necessary for an officer to possess: but he can know little of military affairs as a *science*, who does not know at the same time that these are the very lowest of all the powers that are requisite to constitute even an army at large, much less the official department of an army—and as little can he know of military affairs as a *history*, who is not informed that there never yet was a victory of any importance gained by the size or corporeal hardihood of the commander in chief. Alexander the Great was a little man—so was David when opposed to Goliath—so was Pepin—so were most of the heroes of ancient times: and had this been the rule of modern promotion, we certainly should never have heard of a Bonaparte—but

neither should we have heard of a Nelson. That there are evils which have crept into the subject here complained of, and which call loudly for redress, we are ready to admit; but we certainly should not obtain this redress by exchanging the power resulting from a cultivated education, and a high sense of honour for that produced by the length, breadth, and toughness of human sinews. In another anonymous pamphlet, however, and which we now proceed to notice, we are called to the *audi alteram partem*. This is entitled directly a “Defence of the Volunteer System; in Opposition to Mr. Windham’s Idea of that Force; with Hints for its Improvement.” We have always thought the volunteer system capable of improvement, but have uniformly disapproved Mr. Windham’s open contempt of it. Upon another foundation it might have possessed more adroit officers, and a more mechanical rank and file: but while the natural courage of neither officers nor men is called in question, we have no doubt that even in its present state it would be found a very effective force in the case of emergency, and believe that it has been, and will yet prove itself to be, one grand means of preventing an invasion. The hints here given, however, for its amelioration, acknowledge its imperfection, and form the best and most useful part of the book. The mode prescribed for obtaining from the volunteers themselves a most skilful body of officers is especially worth attending to.

The resumption of the war with France has given all maritime neutral nations an opportunity of pressing their commerce to very great advantage, even in the barter of allowed and legitimate materials.

But

But it is not every neutral nation, or rather not all the individuals of every neutral nation, that have restrained themselves to legitimate materials, or conveyed them in a legitimate way. Fraud and perjury the most open and undisguised have too frequently been had recourse to, if we may trust Mr. Brown's "Mysteries of Neutralization;" in which he informs us, that at Embden Leer, Livorno, and other places, there are regular marts for the sale of fictitious bills of lading and exchange, together with the regular routine of affidavits, city seals, notarial attestations, and even letters of correspondence in order to prove that the vessel thus *honourably* freighted is bound from one neutral port to another, or at least that her lading is not contraband, or that her course does not incline her to any belligerent port.

It is the rigid and extensive search which has formed a part of the existing doctrine of the British government, in consequence of the war with France, that has thus tempted various merchants of neutral countries to a conduct so flagrant and dishonourable. Whether this law be just or unjust, whether it be a law that neutral nations ought to submit to or combine to resist, is a different question: a question that has been long agitated, but never to this moment settled upon any solid principle, that reared into being some years ago the armed neutrality of the North against us, and perhaps has already reared it again, and that, within the preceding twelvemonth, has nearly produced a declaration of war on the part of the American States. It is this last circumstance that has revived the enquiry, and once more called forth a host of

juridical writers, who have respectively taken the side to which their own judgements or their own interests have inclined them. In favour of the right of search we have to notice a third and fourth edition of the pamphlet called "War in Disguise," an account of which will be found in our last retrospect; "The Speech of the hon. J. Randolph, Representative for the State of Virginia, in the general congress of America;" "Belligerent Rights asserted and vindicated against Neutral Encroachments;" which last is designed as a direct answer to "An Examination of the British Doctrine which subjects to Capture a Neutral Trade not open in Time of Peace:" the second edition of which contains a "Letter from the Minister-plenipotentiary of the United States, to lord Mulgrave, late Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs." On which side also we have received "An Answer to War in Disguise; or Remarks upon the new Doctrine of England concerning Neutral Trade;" and "The present Claims and Complaints of America briefly and fairly considered." In the dispute as conducted in these pamphlets the neutralists have certainly the advantage; the general line of their argument is as follows, and it is only replied to by abstract speculations, and the law of *might*. In the old treaties, and especially that with Spain in 1667, it was mutually acceded to, as a point of international law, that the subjects of each should trade freely to all countries at war with the other, excepting to such places as were actually besieged or blockaded, and in such articles as were contraband merchandise. In the same year this point of international law was established by a treaty between France

France and Holland, containing a provision to the same effect. In the war, however, between England and France, that continued from 1756 to 1763, the former country in point of fact retracted the doctrine admitted in 1667, for her prize courts were ordered by the existing administration, to condemn all vessels captured with a freight bound either for France or the colonies of France, although *both ship and cargo should be proved to be neutral property*. This variation from a principle that seems to have been previously admitted, is denominated by all the neutralists and continental writers "the rule of the war of 1756:" and we must here observe that at this very time France was still acting upon the pre-established law, for she admitted neutral vessels into her own colonial ports, which were bound to a hostile coast. Upon the peace of 1763 it must be observed, however, that France shut up her colonial ports against other countries, from a desire to take her own carrying trade exclusively into her own hands, but re-opened them, a short time before the commencement of the American war. While "the rule of the war of 1756" was rigidly adhered to by the English, the French formally protested against it at St. Petersburg, and the basis of the armed neutrality was the result of such protest. The jealousy hereby inspired throughout the northern nations, induced the English government to act with caution on the commencement of the American war, and through the whole course of this war, the British principle, though never openly retracted, was never recognised or acted upon; for Holland and Denmark were unmolestedly allowed to become the carriers of

French and Spanish produce from the colonies to the mother-countries. In the treaty between Great Britain and Russia, however, dated June 1801, the British principle was formally renounced. In the treaty between Great Britain and America it has not been expressly introduced in any way, but it appears to have been virtually relinquished, by a concession on the part of the former that the Americans should be put on the footing of *the most favoured nations*.

During Mr. Pitt's administration there was an alternate revival of "the rule of the war of 1756," and an alternate abandonment. In 1793 it was re-established at large in his majesty's instructions to the prize courts; in 1794 it was restricted to the direct trade between the French West India islands and Europe. In 1798 it was still further restricted, and neutrals were allowed the privilege of trading, in articles not contraband, between Great Britain and the colonies of the enemy, as well as between such colonies and the mother country. During the peace of Amiens, France never re-attempted to take back upon herself exclusively the carrying trade from her own colonies—which of course became *an accustomed trade* to all such countries as chose to engage in it. As such it was admitted by Great Britain even as late as 1803---and no neutral vessel engaged in *this accustomed trade*, which was open to it in time of peace, was allowed to be a subject of capture, unless loaded with contraband articles, or bound to a port blockaded or besieged. But in 1806 was issued by the British ministry one of the most extraordinary regulations ever drawn up by any cabinet in the world. Neutrals were not now al-

lowed to trade directly to any of the colonies of the enemy: the trade from which, if carried on at all, should only, it was decreed, be conducted through the medium of British ports alone; and certain ports were declared free for this purpose in the West Indies: thus transferring all the advantages of the carrying trade from the colonies of one of the hostile powers to the other, to the utter exclusion of every other nation, however close the terms of political amity that might subsist between the respective powers, and however unjust, in an international view, the suppression of such trade.

The American States could not but receive a severe injury from so unexpected a measure; and we cannot be much surprised at the indignation they should have discovered, and the vengeance they should have threatened, however idle in itself. The point of dispute became extreme; for while the British government resuscitated in its fullest force, and pressed to a greater extremity than ever the rigid rule of the war of 1756, the American merchants too generally insisted upon the absolute inviolability of every neutral vessel with whatever cargo she might be freighted, legitimate or contraband, and to whatever port she might be bound, whether blockaded or open. It is clear from this brief survey that there never has been any rule of right in regard to neutral nations during periods of war, so distinctly and universally admitted, as to prevent all doubt upon the subject: both France and England at different periods have acted in different manners; and though the most numerous instances of vacillation and severity are chargeable against the latter,

it is only because the former has less frequently had the power of variation, and of adapting the law or regulation of the day to her own relative state and interest. Yet it is certain that such rule of right does exist, and it is high time that it should be universally avowed and acted upon. It is also clear that in such case the high admiralty courts of every country should take such rule of right alone for their guidance, and dispense the law of nations to nations at large, uncontrolled by the views or wishes, the internal laws or regulations, of whatever state the decision may be awarded in. That this is the noble basis on which the high admiralty tribunal of our own country is established we well know: sir Wm. Scott has repeatedly declared it to be so; and his authority upon this subject is excellently adverted to in the pamphlet entitled "An Examination of the British Doctrine:" but we know also that the administration for the time being has too often interfered to obtrude its own orders instead of the unanimous *dicta* of the best jurists, if not in this court, at least in all the inferior tribunals. We rejoice, however, in the prospect that the plan on which the discussion is now conducting between this country and America, has a chance of bringing this important subject to something like a decision that shall not only dissipate every present bickering, but become the basis of the conduct of our own and of other governments in future.

"An Inquiry into the State of the Nation at the Commencement of the *present* Administration." Such has of late been the ephemeral nature of our cabinets, that for *present* we must here read *past*. The work is certainly written in a nervous,

vous, sententious style, and with palpable proofs of confidential information. We believe the writer is Mr. Brome, and that it was composed not only under the auspices, but under the superintendence of Mr. Fox. The writer's object is to point out the errors of the preceding administrations of Mr. Pitt in regard to foreign connections, and to hint at the plan intended to correct them. After the blame attempted to be thrown on sir Home Popham, in the course of his late trial, we are surprised to find in this pamphlet an avowed intention, as a part of the plan, to liberate the Spanish colonies from the yoke of the mother-country. It seems to have been another intention of the late ministry, had they continued in office, to have opened the colonial ports to neutral vessels at large, and thus to have removed one grand source of the dispute between the American states and ourselves. This anonymous *inquiry* on the part of Mr. Fox's administration has received an anonymous *reply* under the title of "An Answer to the Inquiry into the State of the Nation; with Strictures on the Conduct of the *present* Ministry:" in which, also, for *present* we must read *past*. The work bears sufficient tokens of authenticity, and attacks the party against which it is aimed with sufficient dexterity in many of their more vulnerable points. But the events which have since crowded on our attention, have already antiquated both the inquiry and the answer, and sent them to "the years beyond the flood."

For the same reason we can only catalogue a variety of other temporary strictures, which had merit enough to render them popular when first published, but whose

merit is no longer applicable. Such are "Considerations on the late Treaties between Great Britain and Russia, Austria, and Sweden," published anonymously. "The present Relation of War and Politics between France and Great Britain; by John Andrews, L.L.D." "Letter to the right hon. Charles James Fox, upon the Subject of his Conduct upon the Charges made by Mr. Paull against Marquis Wellesley." "The Policy of reducing the Property-tax, and of carrying on the War for the next five Years without any additional Taxes, recommended in a Letter to a noble Earl, by a Friend to the present (*late*) Administration." "Mr. Francis's Speech in the House of Commons on the 28th of May 1806, against the Exemption of foreign Property in the Funds from the Duty of Income." We wish Mr. Francis had obtained his object; but the time is now gone by, and whether the question will ever be re-agitated is beyond our powers of prediction to determine.

"The Speeches of the right hon. Wm. Pitt in the House of Commons," have found a very careful collector, who has now presented them to the public, from the best reports he has been able, in four octavo volumes. And the administration and the memory of Mr. Pitt have found a warm and active testimony of friendship in "Mr. Rose's brief Examination into the Increase of the Revenue, Commerce, and Navigation, during such Administration." To which Mr. Rose has added allusions to some of the principal events that occurred within the period in question, and a sketch of Mr. Pitt's character. This last does credit to Mr. Rose's feelings, and no discredit to his pen.

pen. Mr. Pitt, however, still requires a biographer: and we are glad to see that the writer of the volume before us has thoughts of undertaking this task also. With the whole of the private life, and much of the private motives of the public life of this truly illustrious statesman, there is no person living perhaps so intimately acquainted as Mr. Rose: and we trust that his return to office will not obliterate his late intention from his memory, nor the ministerial toils and perplexities in which he is hereby involved preclude him from finding time sufficient for such an undertaking.

“The Twelve Reports of the Commissioners of Naval Enquiry, 2 vol. 8vo.” On various accounts these documents have excited a deep interest in the nation; and Mr. Maxwell, the present editor, is entitled to the thanks of the public for thus putting them into a purchaseable and perusable shape. The reports, the compressed style of which sets all abridgement at defiance, are given at length; but the vouchers have been considerably curtailed; and those of inferior consequence entirely omitted. The reports themselves occupy the first volume: the evidence on which they are founded fills up the second in the form of an appendix.

Lord Selkirk's Scottish establishment at Prince Edward's Island, which we noticed with approbation in our last retrospect, has given no small dissatisfaction and apprehension in the bosoms of a great body of our northern compatriots, who seem fearful of being hereby left alone in Caledonia, and of roving from highland to highland without hearing the echo of any human voice but their own. Three transports of emigrants, comprising

about two hundred and fifty, constituted the whole that were transplanted in 1803, and we have not heard that any other cargo has been dispatched since. Among the publications addressed to the noble and patriotic earl in consequence of his adventure, we shall only notice “Eight Letters to the earl of Selkirk,” and “Remarks on the earl of Selkirk's Observations on the present State of the Highlands of Scotland, with a View of the Causes and probable Consequences of Emigration.” The writers of these and more than these concur in advising an act of parliament to prevent emigration: as though Britons were to be tied to any particular spot like little urchins to a table, or as though the internal evils of the country were so numerous and severe that it would become depopulated without some transmigratory interdict. To all these absurd apprehensions and recommendations we reply *laissez-nous faire*. The country, in all parts of it, will always retain as numerous a population as its conveniences for agriculture, manufactures and mineralogy will support; and if the objectors before us would retain more, let them first cultivate new grounds, introduce new manufactures into new places, and open new mines.

“The West Indian Common-Place Book: compiled from parliamentary and official Documents; by sir Wm. Young, bart.” There is still much interest in this thin quarto; though a very great part of it is done away by that most glorious of all the measures of the late parliament, the abolition of the slave trade, of the accomplishment of which, it is one object of the present writer to warn the West Indian planters, so that they might

be prepared to meet it by a previous encouragement of marriages and population. By the calculations introduced into this work, it appears that Jamaica alone produces half the entire growth of sugar, two-thirds of the rum, and three-fourths of the general quantity of articles yielded by the West India islands: that Trinidad and Tobago are by far the two next valuable islands, as freest from occasional disasters—and that, independently of these three islands, all the rest of the Atlantic archipelago is scarcely worth preserving, being perpetually the prey of drought, hurricane or earthquake.

“A Vindication of the Justice and Policy of the late Wars carried on in Hindostan and the Deckan, by the marquis Wellesley, Governor-general, &c. &c.” The oriental politics of marquis Wellésley are here better justified, and his campaigns more ably delineated than in any other publication that has yet met us from the press. The reasoning is correct and for the most part convincing, the language elegant, and the authorities unimpeachable. It is a work which every one should read who is disposed to condemn; and we may add that few who have read it will be disposed to condemn afterwards. We lament that the limits to which we are confined will not allow us to examine its merits more in detail.

The class of ethics for the year before us, has afforded us rather a barren harvest. Mr. Gambier, however, has given to the young a useful “Introduction to the Study of Moral Evidence; or of that species of Reasoning which relates to matters of Fact and Practice;” divided into five chapters, comprising the nature of moral evidence

and the points in which it differs from demonstration—the various kinds of moral evidence and the relative weight of each—speculative inferences in detection of unknown facts—general directions in reference to the various kinds of moral evidence—the different kinds of evidence which different subjects admit. We have also received an anonymous volume of “Physical and Metaphysical Enquiries,” which show the author to be a less skilful reasoner than extensive reader. His book consists of three chapters, devoted to proofs of the reality of matter, the existence of the Deity, and the freedom of the will. It boasts of little that is new, and that little not always legitimately argued.

“The Independent Man; by George Ensor, esq., 2 vols. 8vo.” This work, under a queer title, contains much that is worth remembering, and accompanies man from his cradle to his maturity. It is rather a system of education than of pure ethics: although there is so much of the latter in it as to entitle it, in a general division, to be arranged under the class of ethical or moral philosophy. The first volume is partitioned into five chapters. Of these the first commences with infancy, and extends to the eighteenth year, or term of boyhood; it contains nothing peculiar: mother’s milk during infancy, an exchange of corporal punishments for other remunerations of demerit shortly afterwards, public schools in preference to private, a comparatively late commencement with the learned languages, form the chief subjects it undertakes to recommend. The second chapter embraces the requisite tuition from eighteen to manhood, in the course of which the author advises travel immediately

immediately on quitting school, and before the university is resorted to. Chapter the third is peculiarly dedicated to morals. Chapter the fourth discusses the necessity of study towards the attainment of pre-eminence, and demonstrates that even genius itself will never be able to acquire the latter without the use of the former. The fifth chapter offers some valuable remarks on reading in general. Volume the second is devoted almost exclusively to the different orders of poetry: its origin, its lyric, didactic, satyric, and dramatic casts. The taste discovered is generally correct, but the volume contains much needless repetition.

The vehement opposition which has been discovered in certain quarters to Mr. Lancaster's plan for educating the poorest children in the country, in reading, writing, and accounts, at the trivial expense of a shilling a quarter for each, we have already had occasion to notice. The sound of the war-whoop, which commenced with Mrs. Trimmer, has since been caught and propagated by many persons, and especially by many clergymen, from whom we should have expected more liberality, and a better knowledge of their own duty. In the institution and superintendence of his multitudinous school, Mr. Lancaster, who is by religious profession a quaker, is solely actuated by the ennobling principle of genuine philanthropy, and a desire to serve the best interests of the poor: the elements of the christian religion are taught from the Bible, and to this sacred book, which our author supposes, with St. Paul, is able to make men wise unto salvation, the religious part of the education is confined. It is in no

small degree to the credit of his majesty and the royal family, that they were among the earliest to patronise this institution, from a conviction of the real benevolence of its founder, and the incalculable benefits of its prospective effects: a patronage which is continued to the present hour, and which we hope will continue as long as the establishment itself. In the view of Mrs. Trimmer, however, Mr. Lancaster's plan did not sufficiently inculcate the doctrines of the established church—and admitted the use of Socinian hymns: to the first objection it was replied by the founder of the school, that he was personally a believer in the doctrines in question, but that the simplicity of his plan did not allow a deep or systematic inquiry concerning them; restraining itself to the mere elements of knowledge in general, and consequently of the christian religion in general. To the last objection, after it had been openly urged, iterated and re-iterated with no lack of zeal or vehemence, it was admitted by the propagator of the report herself that she was *under a mistake*. Yet Mr. Lancaster is not suffered to pass off thus freely. Mr. archdeacon Daubeny in his visitation charge, delivered in the Sarum cathedral, June 1806, chose to make this institution the grand topic of his observations—and among other counts to accuse it as follows: "I cannot help considering, therefore, the plan now proposed for public patronage *as deism*, under the imposing guise of philanthropy.—I feel fully disposed to give the conductor of the plan every credit for the best intention: the person acting as *a tool* for others is oftentimes in ignorance with respect to the work to be performed by him.

him.—Surely my brethren we are not to learn that *merely*, to admit the BIBLE as constituting the basis of religious opinions is, in fact, to admit *definitively nothing*.”

These strange insinuations and assertions, and others like these, have not been allowed to circulate in silence. Mr. Lancaster has again come forwards in vindication of himself and his institution, and addressed to the public “An Appeal for Justice, in the Cause of ten thousand poor and orphan Children; and for the Honour of the Holy Scriptures: being a Reply exposing the Misrepresentations in the Charge delivered at the Visitation of Charles Daubeney, archdeacon of Sarum.” In the course of this appeal the author has given his creed so fully, as to convince, we should suppose, even the archdeacon himself that he has as unjustly accused him of an inclination to deism, as Mrs. Trimmer had done before him of an inclination to Socinianism. He denies being the *tool* of any man, for that the plan is altogether his own; yet concedes, that if the term will apply to him in any sense, it can only so apply in reference to his majesty, who, more than any one else, has patronised and encouraged it, and consequently whose *instrument* he is in advancing so benevolent a concern. He is severe, and we think justly so, upon the archdeacon for his opinion of the *definitive nothingness* of the Bible upon the subject of religious opinions, and recommends to his perusal the sixth article of the church of England, concerning the sufficiency of the Holy Scriptures, as also the opinion of St. Paul upon this subject, in his address to Timothy. Finally, he accuses the archdeacon of many other misrepresentations, and much wilful

ignorance upon various matters, in regard to this institution, concerning which he ought to have obtained information, and might have done so with great ease, by having written to Mr. Lancaster upon the subject, but which he never once gave himself the trouble to do.

We are glad to find that the opponents of Mr. Lancaster’s plan have at length resolved upon pursuing the only system of warfare which is truly legitimate and creditable to them: and that is, of opening similar schools upon their own principles, and following them up with arrangements more consistent with the dictates of their own conscience. To these and to every other establishment that has a tendency to promote useful knowledge among the poor, we most heartily wish God-speed. One of the institutions we now allude to is pretty fully delineated in a pamphlet published anonymously, and entitled “A System of Education for the labouring Poor.” This system is in fact not essentially different from Mr. Lancaster’s, excepting in the enforcement of the church catechism, and of religious exercises in unison with the church liturgy, upon the different scholars who are admitted; and consequently, in shutting the door against the children of all sectaries whatever. We have been chiefly disgusted in this and various other pamphlets, with a new attempt to lessen the merit of honest Joseph Lancaster, by asserting that he is not the original inventor of the plan upon which his boasted economy chiefly rests,—we mean of employing trays of sand, instead of sheets of paper, for the first attempts at writing and cyphering: and by ascribing to Dr. Bell, who is introduced as the chief agent in the

the new concern, a claim considerably prior, in consequence of his having been privy to the use of the same mode of tuition many years ago, when a director of the male asylum at Madras. Dr. Bell, we believe, to be a very excellent and benevolent man, and, from the habit of eleemosynary tuition, he acquired in India a very proper person to be consulted and appointed superintendant on the present occasion. But he must not be allowed to divest Jos. Lancaster of all the merit which is claimed by him and for him, upon the question before us. If Mr. Lancaster be not the original inventor of sand trays for writing and accounts, he is at least the first who introduced them into our own country; and he has so far improved upon whatever model he may have met with, and so far simplified the best systems of charity-schools in a vast variety of other respects, as to be fairly allowed the praise of instructing, by a plan that is, in its detail, altogether his own. As to the use of sand-boards or sand-areas of some kind or other, in the way of education, they are of immemorial standing, and Dr. Bell has just as little claim to the merit of having invented them as Mr. Lancaster. Two or three years ago, when adverting to Mr. Lancaster's method for the first time, we observed that this kind of trays or boards has been for ages common among the Hindus: and we have much reason to believe that both the Jews and the Egyptians taught the sciences of reading and writing to their children by letters or figures traced on the sandy shores of their rivers, or the sandy plains of the interior parts of their respective countries.

We shall dwell more cursorily

upon this subject at present, because, in consequence of Mr. Whitbread's bill, or rather series of bills, for a regulation of the poor, we shall certainly have occasion to return to it in our next number. We cannot, however, dismiss the subject before us without noticing that Dr. Bell himself, in his "Analysis of the Experiment in Education made at Egmore, near Madras," has given an account of an attempt, which he has entirely superintended, to introduce the same system into our own country, and has suggested a scheme for the better administration of the poor-laws, by converting schools for the lower orders of youths into schools of industry; a scheme, however, which requires some pause before we can consent to adopt it: and that the truly benevolent Mr. Colquhoun, with the highest veneration for Dr. Bell's general method, has offered a "New and Appropriate System of Education for the labouring People," in which he details the effects of a school similar to that of Dr. Bell's, founded under his own patronage and eye. He chiefly differs in discarding the sand trays for coarse slates, and slate pencils. And so convinced is this excellent magistrate of its general importance, that he has added some observations on the expediency of extending the system over the nation at large, under the immediate aid and sanction of the legislature.

In the department now before us, we must necessarily classify Mrs. West's "Letters to a Young Lady, in which the Duties and Character of Women are considered, chiefly with a reference to prevailing Opinions." The popularity of this lady's "Letters to a Young Man," has been one inducement to her venturing

venturing upon the present work : a second, we are told, was the dying request of a highly valued friend, that she would devote her leisure hours to publications that should “tend not only to moral but religious edification.” The three volumes before us, therefore, which are designed to guide the age of inexperienced girlhood, and direct it to the evolution of a perfect female character, are devoted to a consideration of our morals, our manners, and our religious distinctions and principles. In our opinion, there is less of nature, and less of a knowledge of the world in this work than in our author’s “Letters to a Young Man.” That young man was her son ; and we perceive the mother in every page. To what *young lady* the letters before us are addressed we know not—but unquestionably the *mother* is not equally perceived here. Much of the description of our fashionable high life, and our fashionable low life, appears to us to be taken from reading rather than from actual observation ; and hence, not a little of it is caricatured. At least we may be allowed to say that neither among the court ladies nor the city ladies, have we ever met with all the absurdities which are here introduced, as constituting essential ingredients in their respective constructions. Yet regarded as a whole, the work gives evident proofs of genius and deep reflection, is well worth perusal, and will amply repay by its entertainment.

The chief pupillary books we have met with besides, that are in any respect entitled to notice, are “A Tour through Asia Minor, and the Greek Islands, with an Account of the Inhabitants, Natural Productions and Curiosities ;

for the Instruction and Amusement of Youth : by C. Wilkinson :” an ideal tour well arranged, well selected, and replete with entertainment. “The History of England, from the earliest Records, to the Peace of Amiens. In a series of Letters to a Young Lady at School : by Charlotte Smith, 3 vols. 12mo :” possessing as much merit as most, and superior to many of the epistolary compendiums of our history, and having the exclusive advantage of a descent almost to the present day. “The History of Scotland, related in familiar Conversations ; by Eliz. Helme, 2 vols. 12mo.” “Historical Dialogues for Young Persons : by Miss Hays, vol. 1. 12mo :” both possessing all the tediousness of colloquy without its ease and appropriation—the former, though tedious, little more than a chronicle,—the latter, ill-selected, and to children often unintelligible. “Panorama for Youth, 2 vols. 12mo.” The world is here painted something better than it deserves to be—and the work has too little arrangement in the distribution of the different branches of science it is its professed object to teach. In other respects Mrs. Sterndale has not been unsuccessfully employed. In the moral and religious departments she is unimpeachable. “Geographical Copy-books ; or Outlines of Maps adapted to be filled in by Geographical Students ; by the Rev. J. Goldsmith, Parts I and II.” A very useful invention, and admirably adapted to facilitate a knowledge of the very important science in question. As such, we earnestly recommend it to our various schools and academies.

We shall close our catalogue with an octavo volume, entitled “Encyclopædia for Youth : or an Abridgement of all the Sciences, for

for the Youth of Schools of both Sexes. Translated from the French: arranged and compiled by John Joseph Stockdale. Illustrated with eleven Plates." The unwieldy bulk, which it has been of late the fashion to give to all our publications, pretending to the character of encyclopædias, has rendered a work of the present kind highly

necessary. Mr. Stockdale appears to have shown much taste in the points in which he has differed from his original: the information he communicates is as extensive as his plan will admit, and his plates are not only neatly engraven, but peculiarly applicable and explanatory.

CHAPTER IV.

LITERATURE AND POLITE ARTS.

Containing the Transactions of Literary Societies, Biography, Antiquities, Philology, Classics, Poetry, Drama, Novels, Tales, and Romances.

WE readily commence this section of our labours with announcing and cursorily examining the fifteenth volume of the *Archæologia* lately published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. It consists of thirty-nine articles, most of them, had we time, entitled to distinct attention; independently of an appendix containing an abstract of other communications, of less importance, in the opinion of the council. It might be esteemed vanity in us, perhaps, from the limited testimony before us, to call in question the taste or the judgement of this venerable tribunal—but from the very high merit conspicuous even in the abridged form of five or six of the papers that are thus thrown into the back-ground, we cannot but regret that they are not given in their full and original dimensions, although it had been at the expense of several of those that have been more highly honoured, but which, on this account, we would have consented to have spared. We allude more particularly to Mr.

Knight's *Sculptured Fragments*, and the *Remains at Anna Clough Mullen*, both of which appear amply entitled to a full-sized portraiture.

Of those given at length we shall begin with noticing No. V. "An Account of the Greek Inscription on Pompey's Pillar; by capt. W. M. Leake and lieut. John Squire;" communicated in a letter to Dr. Raine. The inscription is here traced more correctly and more fully than in any former attempt, the authors of the paper before us having first made use of a ladder, and afterwards of a suspended plank, in order to decipher as much as possible of the obliterated characters. In the form now offered to us it occurs as follows in five lines.

TO	ΩΤΑΤΟΝΑΤΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ	ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
Δ' ΙΟΚΑΗΤΙΑΝ ΟΝΤΟΝ ΤΟΝ	
ΠΟ ΕΠΙΡΧΟΜΕΝΟΝ	
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In the first chasm, scarcely a vestige remains; they could not even determine the number of letters which had formerly existed there: in the second they could not accurately decide whether there had been five or six letters: in the third they could not advance beyond the first two letters, ΠΟ, though they were positive that the hiatus included six. We think Dr. Raine has correctly supplied them by ΜΠΗΙΟΣ, which of course makes the word Πομπήιος. Of the last line they could not decipher a single character. The inscription appears to have been rudely sculptured, and the tablet occupies the whole length of the base on the western side, at the height of eighteen feet from the ground. The different parts of the pillar are not in true architectural proportion to each other, and the workmanship is not well executed: facts which, if taken in conjunction with the peculiar style of the character, are amply sufficient to fix the date of the pillar at a period in which the arts and taste of the Romans were declining; and there is hence, to adopt the words of the communication itself, little doubt that it is "not the pillar of Pompey the Great, but the pillar dedicated by Pompey, præfect of Ægypt, to the emperor Dioclesian."

Dr. Fly's "Account of an Abbey of Nuns formerly situated in the Street now called the Minories," is an entertaining article, and the result of cautious and extensive inquiry. Mr. Bennett's admirable delineation of the process for unrolling the ancient *papyri* discovered in the ruins of Herculaneum is accompanied by a plan which we cannot conveniently copy, or certainly should give a fuller statement of it. Mr. Jackson's "Ac-

count of the Ruins of Carthage," is valuable from its curious description of the aqueduct by which the city was supplied with fresh water from mount Luan, at a distance of forty-five miles to the south-east. The remains of this aqueduct are still magnificent. Near Udena it formed a range of above a thousand arches, over an extensive valley, of which some of the middlemost were above a hundred feet in height. In magnitude our author asserts it far exceeds any remain he has ever beheld of ancient or modern architecture, either in Europe or Asia. Dr. Becke has offered some valuable Observations on the ancient inhabitants, Roman stations and Roman roads in and near Berkshire, in which he attempts to prove that the Bibroci were chiefly situate on the eastern part of the county, in the vicinity of Bray, and that Moulsoford was the Thamesis of the eighteenth *Iter* of Antonina, as preserved by Richard of Cirencester. Mr. Hamilton, chiefly from personal observation, has contributed an important paper of "Remarks on the Fortresses of ancient Greece;" by the aid and existence of which he endeavours to trace the site of many of the fortified cities of Hellas, of which not a vestige remains excepting in the pages of the Grecian poets and historians;—while from the massy, uncemented walls which inclosed them, he ventures to question the doctrine that derives the origin of the arts and sciences of Greece from Ægypt. The "Remains of Gothic Architecture in Italy and Sicily," is the subject of three papers of considerable interest. In the first, Mr. Smirke endeavours to assign the architecture in question to a period as early as the eleventh century.

He is opposed in the second of these papers by sir H. Englefield, who contends for their commonly conceived date, the fourteenth century. In the third, Mr. Smirke offers additional remarks, accompanied with several interesting drawings, in support of his previous opinion.

Of "The Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London" we have only received the first part for the year before us. If the papers be not, on the whole, quite equal to those of the last volume, they are still highly valuable. No. 1, or "The Croonian Lecture on the Arrangement and mechanical Action of the Muscles of Fishes," is the production of Mr. Carlisle. It is an able article, but in its physiology it does not essentially differ from the observations of Dr. Munro. 2, "The Bakerian Lecture on the Force of Percussion: by W. Hyde Wollaston, M.D. Sec. R. S." The object of this paper is to reconcile the difference between the followers of Leibnitz and Newton, in their mode of estimating the forces of equal bodies moving with unequal velocities: the former maintaining that these forces are as the masses multiplied into the squares of the velocities, the latter regarding them in the simple ratio of the velocities. The author's ingenuity has crowned him with success. 3, "Memoire sur les Quantités imaginaires: par M. Buée." It is impossible to abridge this article: it is ingenious and deserves attention. 4, "Chemical Experiments on Guaiacum: by Mr. W. Brande." Guaiacum is proved by the experiments here related to be by no means entitled to its common character of a pure resin. Among other constituent principles, it contains oxalic acid, extract, and a very considerable portion of char-

coal, together with some lime. 5, "On the direction of the radicle and germen during the vegetation of seeds: by Thomas Andrew Knight, esq. F. R. S." It has long been an inquiry By what principle does the seed of a plant, in whatever direction placed, with its eye or hilum upwards or downwards, throw forth its germen towards the surface and its radicles towards the centre of the earth? Mr. Knight, in the paper before us, from a variety of ingenious experiments by which the seeds he employed were kept in a state of perpetual motion, concludes that this principle is the common power of gravitation. Experiments of a similar kind, of which our author does not appear to be aware, were some years ago made by Mr. John Hunter to settle the same query. The result was the same—but Mr. Hunter by no means ascribed it to the same cause. For ourselves, we believe it to be instinctive alone; a cause something more complex perhaps than that of gravitation, but operating through animal, vegetable, and even mineral matter, nearly as extensively. We have not space for instances, nor is it necessary. 6, A Third Series of Experiments on an Artificial tanning Substance which possesses the principal characteristic Properties of Tannin: with some Remarks on Coal: by Charles Hatchett, esq. F. R. S." The first two series relate chiefly to animal and mineral substances capable of evolving the tanning principle by digestion in a solution of nitric acid. From the paper before us it should seem that there are few animal, vegetable, or even mineral substances of the inflammable class, but what may be induced to yield a principle similar to that of tannin by the use either of sulfuric or nitric acid: and, what

what is of still higher consequence, that the residuum or exhausted bark of the tan-pits, being dried and roasted and then moistened with diluted nitric acid; which must be suffered to evaporate not much exceeding 300° till the bark becomes perfectly dry, on being digested in water will again yield a considerable portion of tannin in a yellowish brown liquor that will abundantly precipitate gelatin. A process which may be repeated time after time, and with equal success, till the whole of the bark has been converted into the tanning substance. Our author's very valuable remarks on coal tend to explain the vegetable origin of this bituminous substance by the medium of sulfuric acid. All resins contain a small quantity of charcoal evolved by distillation: but by the action of the sulfuric acid, after the formation of a portion of tannin, which is the first change hereby produced, they will give out from twelve to fifteen times as much charcoal; and saw-dust by solution in diluted sulfuric acid may be converted into a substance resembling Kilkenny coal. 7, "Application of a Method of Differences to the Species of Sines whose Sums are obtained by Mr. Lauder by the Help of impossible Quantities: by Mr. B. Gompertz." It is impossible to abridge this article. 8, "An Account of a small Lobe of the human prostrate Gland, which has not been before taken notice of: by E. Home, esq. F. R. S." It is useful to know of the existence of this lobe, as it may lead us to account for various symptoms in a diseased state of the gland which have hitherto been regarded as anomalous. It yet remains to be proved whether the lobe in question be an uniform or only an oc-

casional appendage. 9, "On the Quantity and Velocity of the Solar Motion: by W. Herschell, L. L. D. F. R. S." The article is curious, but it cannot be curtailed. 10, "Observations upon the Marine Barometer made during the Examination of the Coasts of New Holland and New South Wales, in the Years 1801, 1802, 1803: by Matthew Flinders, Commander of his Majesty's Ship Investigator." The observations are minute and replete with meteorological information: but it is impossible to give them within the bounds to which we are limited. 11, "Account of a Discovery of native Minium: in a Letter from James Smithson, esq. F. R. S." The minium here adverted to was found in Germany, intermixed with compact carbonated zinc. 12, "Description of a rare Species of Worm-shells discovered at an Island lying off the North-west Coast of the Island of Sumatra, in the East Indies: by J. Griffiths, esq." 13, "Observations on the Shell of the Sea-worm found on the Coast of Sumatra, proving it to belong to a Species of *Teredo*: with an Account of the Anatomy of the *Teredo navalis*: by E. Home, esq. F. R. S." Mr. Home has succeeded in proving the worm described in the preceding paper to be a *teredo*: it differs however from the general character of the species, in inhabiting mud instead of timber: its length is enormous, and reaches from five feet to five feet and half—its bulk is by no means in proportion—yet from its whole make it has been named *Gigantea*. The anatomy of the other species *T. navalis* is described from specimens in the British Museum, and that of Dr. W. Hunter, compared with some living worms of the same tribe, procured from the dock-

yard at Sheerness. 14, "On the inverted Action of the alburnous Vessels of Trees: by Thomas Andrew Knight, esq. F. R. S." This inverted action is attempted in the paper before us to be proved from the accumulation of woody matter in the case of a large wound in the bark of the trunk, or a removal of a ring of the bark, as well on the lower as the upper lip of the wound. We are not sure whether this phænomenon, as well as the nutriment supplied to the intervening portion of the trunk, is not produced by anastomosings of the reducent or cortical vessels: yet that a total inversion of the action of alburnous and cortical vessels does occasionally take place, we know from the fact that many trees, and especially of the genus *prunus*, may be made, by bending their stem-branches downwards into the earth, and afterwards by digging up the original root, to grow in a completely inverted direction; the original root shooting forth stem-branches, and the original stem radicles or root-branches. 15, "A new Demonstration of the binomial Theorem, when the Exponent is a positive or negative Fraction: by the rev. Abraham Robertson, A. M. F. R. S." 16, "New Method of computing Logarithms: by Thomas Manning, esq." These two articles are equally incapable of abridgement. 17, "Description of the mineral Bason in the Counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan, Brecon, Carmarthen, and Pembroke: by Mr. E. Martin." The interior of the bason is a vast coal field, consisting of twenty-three strata or seams, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 9 feet in thickness, besides several of inferior depth, the average extent of each is a thousand square miles, from which, in the usual mode of

working, may be obtained about sixty-four thousand tons per mile. The intersections are beds of nodular iron ore: the boundaries of the bason are banks of limestone. 18, "Observations on the Permanency of the Variation of the Compass at Jamaica: in a Letter from Mr. James Robertson." The limits of estates have been almost immemorially determined in Jamaica by an appeal to the magnetic instead of to the true meridian. These limits correspond to the same indications in the magnet at the present moment; and hence prove precisely that no variation can have taken place during a period of at least a hundred and thirty or forty years. 19, "Observations on the Camel's Stomach, respecting the Water which it contains, and the Reservoirs in which that Fluid is inclosed: with an Account of some Peculiarities in the Urine: by E. Home, esq. F. R. S." This is a useful paper in the science of zootomy. Mr. Brande furnished the chemical observations on the urine. 20, "Observations on the Variation, and on the Dip of the Magnetic Needle, made at the Apartments of the Royal Society, between 1786 and 1805, inclusive: by Mr. George Gilpin." 21, "On the Declinations of some of the principal fixed Stars: with a Description of an astronomical Circle and some Remarks on the Construction of circular Instruments: by John Pond, esq." 22, "Observations and Remarks on the Figure, the Climate, and the Atmosphere of Saturn and its Ring: by W. Herschell, L. L. D. F. R. S." We can only copy the titles of these. From the last, Dr. Herschell establishes the probability of a Saturnian atmosphere.

"Asiatic Researches; or Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal

Bengal for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences and Literature of Asia. Vol. VII." This elegant and useful result of confederate genius and talents should have been noticed by us in our last Retrospect had we received the volume in time. We hasten to atone for the omission. The first article is "On the Course of the Ganges through Bengal: by major Colebrooke." The occasional obstructions which the rivers of Bengal meet with on the return of their periodical flux, produces not unfrequently some very extraordinary alterations in the course and bending of their respective beds, and hence some equally extraordinary changes in the general face of the country. While some villages that are in common scarcely visited by a river even at its utmost rise, are overflowed and suddenly swept away—others, that were actually seated on the banks of an arm and that used to be regularly inundated, are totally deserted, and the inhabitants have to travel over many miles to obtain water. The Ganges has evinced changes of this nature in a greater degree than any other Indian stream. Even since the survey of major Rennel in 1764, it has deviated in its course, in one place, not less than two miles and a half: several of the villages which figure in his map are no longer to be found in the situations assigned them; while islands of considerable magnitude, now inhabited and cultivated, have started into being where the river then rolled its deepest waters. These changes are truly extraordinary, and are ably traced in the paper before us. 2, "On Singhálá or Ceylon, and the Doctrines of Buddha, from the Books of the Singhálá: by Captain Mahony."

This very entertaining and instructive paper furnishes additional proofs, in the progress of its remarks, of the unity of what we may call Brahminism and Buddhism as to their origin; and almost the only point left uncertain upon the subject is, which of the two preceded the other. The mythological history of Buddha corresponds most exactly with that of Brahma: the sacred language of Ceylon seems to be very largely interspersed with Sanscrit terms, (or as it is now the fashion to write it, after Mr. Gilchrist's method, Sunscrit—a fashion, however, for which we shall not desert the previous system of sir William Jones:) and almost the only two instances of a difference in doctrine is, that while the Brahmans renounce animal food and addict themselves to matrimony, the priests of Buddha profess the most rigid celibacy, but by no means abstain from flesh in their ordinary meals.

Whilst we are upon this subject, we will step forwards to several other papers in the same volume that are closely connected with it, and then return to the intervening articles. 8, "On the Religious Ceremonies of the Hindus, and of the Brahmans especially: by H. T. Colebrooke, esq. Essay II." 9, The same continued, Essay III. 12, "On the Religion and Manners of the People of Ceylon: by Mr. Joinville." In a former essay Mr. Colebrooke described the diurnal ablutions and other devotional acts of the Brahmans. In the first of the two essays before us, "I shall restrict myself," he observes, "to explain the oblation to fire; and then proceed to describe funeral rites and commemorative obsequies, together with the daily offerings of food and water to the manes

of ancestors." In Essay III. (the second now before us) he exhibits the manner in which the rites of hospitality, "one of the five sacraments," says he, "which constitute the daily duty of a Hindu," are exercised. The article closes with a detail of marriage ceremonies. The whole description, in both essays, is so little diffuse, and so severely limited to facts themselves, as to be totally incapable of abridgement. Mr. Joinville's article is an important one. It relates to the present customs of the Singhalese or Ceylonese; their established religion, and their cosmogony. In their religious ceremonies, general doctrines, and much of what may be called their sacred nomenclature, Mr. Joinville agrees with capt. Mahony, that they closely resemble the Brahmans. He strongly inclines, however, to believe that Buddhism preceded Brahminism. It may be so: but on this point we do not feel his reasoning altogether convincing.

We revert to the other articles in their order. 3, "Narrative of a Route from Chunarghur to Yertna-goodun, in the Ellar Sircar: by Capt. J. T. Blunt." The object of this tour was "to trace a route between Berar, Orissa, and the Northern Sircars." To fulfil it, the author proceeded southernly, and crossed the river Sond at Silpi. He passed throughout the whole of his course in the midst of a poor and generally of a mountainous country; often through savage and barbarian tribes, one or two of which he seems to have regarded not only as totally distinct from the Hindus, but as much better entitled to the character of aboriginal. The attempts of violence to which he at length became daily exposed, induced him to relinquish his jour-

ney sooner than he had intended. On the banks of the Judravati, in the country of the wild and inhospitable Gond tribes, he suddenly paused, and changed his course; and after tracing the Venwa to its confluence with the Gadáveri, entered the district of Palunsha, still followed the course of the stream, and at length reached the Company's territories in the Sircar of Rájmanderi. 4, "Account of a new Species of Delphinus, an Inhabitant of the Ganges: by Dr. Roxburgh." It is impossible to add this Gangetic delphinus at present to the other species of this genus. The specimen before us is inaccurately described, and from a subject not more than half grown. 5, "Translation of one of the Inscriptions on the Pillar at Delhi, called the Lat of Firaz Shah: by Henry Colebrooke, esq. With introductory remarks by Mr. Harrington." Firaz Shaw died A.D. 1489: the date of the pillar is uncertain: it is supposed to have been erected by this prince as an aviary or menagerie: its height above the terrace is thirty-seven feet, and its circumference, where it joins it, ten feet four inches. It has five inscriptions in unknown characters, and a sixth in Devanagari and in the Sanscrit language. It is this last which is the subject of the present memoir: but it is not sufficiently interesting for us to transcribe. 6, "Account of the Cucis or Zunctas: by John Macrae, esq. communicated by J. H. Harrington, esq." These people are a barbarous and ill-shapen race of hunters and warriors, divided into a multiplicity of little tribes, and constantly engaged in hostilities against each other, or in predatory excursions against neighbouring nations. They are certainly not of Hindu

Hindu origin; neither their form nor language has any relation to a Sanscrit stock. They refer their own rise to the Magas and probably are correct in the tradition. 7, "On the Sanscrit and Prácrit Languages: by H. T. Colebrooke, esq." While Sanscrit is the sacred tongue, the *iepa yāpanāta* of the Hindus, Prácrit is that language which was once perhaps colloquial over the greater part of India, and which has laid the chief basis for all the different dialects at present met with. There may have been, as is commonly suspected, two other elementary languages, the Apabhraṇsa, or jargon, and the Misra or mixed—but of these we know too little to dwell upon. Our author gives a variety of references to Sanscrit philologists and grammarians of very high reputation, as well as of very great antiquity; and in his remarks on the Prácrit regards it, as we do ourselves, as the chief source of "the written dialects now used in the intercourse of civil life, and cultivated by learned men." These dialects he conceives may be about ten in number. The Caraswata—or that spoken on the banks of the river of this name. The Cānyacubjas, or Hindu, which by an intermixture of Persic and Arabic nouns, is now become the Hindustanee or Moors: both of which dialects are written in the Nagari character while all that follow have a character peculiar to themselves. Gaurá or Bengalee: Maithilá, that of Tirhut, differing slightly from Bengalee: Utcála, that of the province of Orissa: Dravira, or Tamila, that used in the peninsula of India, between the twelfth and thirteenth degree of north latitude: the Mahārāshtra, or Mahratta: the Car-

náta or Carnára, on both the coasts of the peninsula: the Telinga, on the banks of the Crishna and Gadáveri: The Gurjara, province of Guzerah; nearly allied to the Hindu. 8, "An Account of a Method for extending a geographical Survey across the Peninsula of India: by Brigade-major Lambton." We cannot abridge this article. 9, "On the Origin and peculiar Tenets of certain Mohammedan Sects: by H. T. Colebrooke, esq." These sects are chiefly the Bohrahs, Sadicas and Ali-Allahiyas: they are all regarded as heretics by the Indian Moslems, and have more or less intermixed the tenets of Ismaelism with those of Brahminism. 10, "A summary Account of the Life and Writings of Avyar, a Tamul female Philosopher: by the rev. Dr. John." Avyar was the Mrs. Trimmer or Mrs. Barbauld of her country, in the ninth century of the Christian æra. She wrote books of instruction for children which are still used in teaching them to read. The article might have been omitted without any loss of credit to the volume. 11, "Account of the St. Thomé Christians on the Coast of Malabar: by F. Wredé, esq." This description of Christians, with Malabar features and colour, was discovered by the Portuguese in their first voyage round the Cape: they were evidently Nestorians, but were at first supposed from their name to have been converted to Christianity by St. Thomas the apostle. It has since been conceived, with more probability, that they were so converted by a follower of Nestorius, who fled into India upon the banishment of Nestorius by the emperor in 435 of the Christian æra. The author before

us attempts, but we think unsuccessfully, to prove that the Thomé, or Thomas, who really founded the sect in question, was a wealthy Syrian merchant of the sixth century, of the name of Thomé Cannanelo, who is said by tradition to have landed at Cranganor, where he was well received and induced to settle. 12, "Account of an hereditary living Deity, to whom Devotion is paid by the Brahmans of Puna and its Neighbourhood : by Capt. Edward Moore." Auxiliary absurdities are as common, and there is no reason why they should not be so, among the Brahmists or Vedists as among the Roman catholics : and this living deity, as he is here called—the hereditary descendant of a Brahman of Puna, who, on account of his exercises of extreme "abstinence, mortification and prayer," was favoured above others with (or in the language of the author *merited above others*) the favourable regards of the Almighty—is one of them. 13, "An Account of the Bazigars, a Sect commonly denominated Nuts : by Captain David Richardson." The Bazigars are tribes of itinerant jugglers, totally destitute of every religion, and who gain a livelihood by exhibiting their tricks and sleight-of-hand among the Indian nations through whom they travel. 14, "On the Burmhan Game of Chess, compared with the Indian, Chinese, and Persian Game of the same Denomination." We cannot enlarge on this subject: the European game seems evidently, as has indeed been long allowed, to be derived from the East ; but we can no more decide whether the Hindus or the Burmhans have a claim to the invention, than we can

whether Buddha or Visnu were anterior in chronology ; nor does the paper before us afford the requisite clue.

We proceed to the class of Biography—a class peculiarly rich and entertaining in regard to the productions of the year. Sir Richard Hoare, in his translation of "Giraldus de Barri's Itinerary of Archbishop Baldwin through Wales," has prefixed a very spirited and entertaining life of the writer—the most accomplished scholar of his age—and whose journal is one of the most valuable that has descended to us. Giraldus flourished about the middle of the twelfth century—by his father's lineage he was of noble Norman blood, by his mother's he was descended from the ancient Welch princes. He was intended for the army ; but his own inclinations were complied with, and they led him to the church—in which he appeared through the greater part of his life as archdeacon of St. David's. He was at one time so desirous of the mitre of this see, that he refused an installation into several other bishoprics that he might be disengaged on the first vacancy : one or two vacancies occurred, however, but the more powerful influence of rival church-men rendered him unsuccessful. In the latter part of his life it was voluntarily offered him, but he had then retired from the world, and did not choose to accept it. When Henry II. had taken the cross, and was preparing for Palestine, Baldwin archbishop of Canterbury, and archdeacon Girald, entered into the same view, and were sent in 1107 to raise recruits by preaching up the crusade through the country of Wales. Their success was very considerable;

considerable; and it was on this occasion that our Cambrian composed the valuable itinerary which sir Richard Hoare has now translated. It gives a very regular and detailed account of the progress and events of every day—a minute delineation of the country as the venerable ecclesiastic travelled through it, and a strong and striking picture of the customs and manners of the inhabitants. Girald, however, notwithstanding his success, did not choose to *lead* his converts to the Holy Land: both himself and the archbishop found means, in consequence, to evade the vow they had taken, and deputed their benediction alone, instead of vouchsafing their personal presence, to accompany the volunteers they had so sanctimoniously enlisted. He afterwards, prior to his seclusion from the world, attended Henry II. to France, in the expedition in which that monarch and most of his retinue fell a sacrifice to the dysentery; and was honoured by Richard Lion-heart, when the latter departed for Palestine, with the high post of coadjutor to William de Long Champ bishop of Ely, in the regency of the kingdom. He died at St. David's, aged 74, in the year 1320, and was buried in the cathedral church. His character is thus ably given by his biographer: "Noble in his birth, and comely in his person; mild in his manners, and affable in his conversation; zealous, active and undaunted in maintaining the rights and dignities of his church; moral in his character, and orthodox in his principles; charitable and disinterested, though ambitious; learned, though superstitious—*such was Giraldus*. And in whatever point of view we examine the character of this extraordinary man, whether

as a scholar, a patriot, or a divine, we may justly consider him as one of the brightest luminaries that adorned the annals of the twelfth century." To this elegant and entertaining biography sir Richard has added another prolegomenal article, before he introduces his Translation, which he calls an Introduction to the History of Wales, from the Invasion of Britain by the Romans, down to 1118; at which period Girald prosecuted his journey. It is rather paleosophic than historic, but abounds with much instructive and interesting matter. The itinerary that follows is, as we have already observed, one of the most valuable records of the twelfth century that has descended to us, and the continuity and precision of the original are well preserved in the version. The whole work is beautifully printed, and highly ornamented with archæological engravings and scenes, selected from the course of the crusaders. We have already extracted various papers from it.

The Memoirs of Colonel Hutchinson and of sir Henry Slingsby we have already arranged in another department, to which they more accurately belong, in consequence of their intimate union with the general history of the times to which they relate. The reader will find them duly noticed and appreciated in our third chapter.

"The Life and literary Works of Michael Angelo Buonarotti: by R. Dappa." 4to. This is a very elegant, entertaining, and instructive work. The life is drawn up from the Italian biographers Condivi and Vasari: but Mr. Dappa has added, from other authorities, a variety of incidents which had escaped the recollection or notice of both. He has also highly enriched his volume

volume by fac-similes of this exquisite artist's autograph and a multiplicity of outlines of his best compositions. This extraordinary man was descended by remote antiquity from the famous Countess Matilda, and had, consequently, imperial blood flowing in his veins. His father was *podesta* or governor of Chriesi and Caprera, the former of which was at that time the capital of Porsenna. It was in the latter city he was born, in March 1474—and by being entrusted to a nurse who was both the daughter and wife of a stone-mason, and having a chisel for his daily plaything, his future destiny was thus stamped, as it were, by accident; for he would be an artist, in spite of all the remonstrances of his friends, who wished him to turn his thoughts to some literary profession. His father at length yielded to his inclinations: Domenico was his master—Lorenzo de Medici was his first patron, in whose palace at Florence he had apartments appropriated to him, and all the popes from Julius II. to Pius IV. were his patrons in succession. Yet several of them were patrons rather than friends, and availed themselves of his genius, while they occasionally degraded the man. Hence, whenever he could steal away from Rome he was happy to do so—he was often brought back by force, and once had thoughts of leaving Italy entirely, and of entrusting himself to the protection of the Grand Sultan. In the last struggle of Florence for her freedom against the tyranny of the Medici, Michel Angelo was appointed military architect and master of the ordnance; and his tactics, like those of Archimedes in the defence of Syracuse, succeeded against every thing but internal treachery, to which at length

the republic fell a prey. He died at Rome Feb. 17, 1563, at the advanced age of eighty-nine, and his interment was celebrated by a public procession.

“The military, historical, and political Memoirs of the Count de Hordt, a Swedish Nobleman, and Lieutenant in the Service of his Majesty the King of Prussia: revised by M. Borelly, late Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin, &c. 2 vols. 12mo.” This work in the original is highly interesting and attractive;—but the wretchedness of the English version before us has prevented us from all possibility of selecting those passages from it, and introducing them in another department of our miscellany, which we should otherwise have taken a pleasure in doing. It becomes us on this account to draw up a very brief sketch (for our limits will not allow us to proceed further,) to supply the deficiency. The father of Count de Hordt was a Swede of illustrious rank, who had abjured his native land in consequence of the tyranny of Charles XI. and had fled to France. He was recalled on the accession of Charles XII. entered under him into the military service of his country, and accompanied his sovereign in all his campaigns till his return from Turkey. The hero of the narrative before us was at this time a youth. To give him a practical lesson of subordination, his father compelled him to enter as a private in the Swedish foot guards: and his own merit entitled him in due time to a commission in a provincial regiment, which he seems to have taken possession of with a pride and pleasure seldom experienced in subsequent life. In this capacity he served against the Russians in the campaign of 1741, and

and shortly after the termination of the war by the disgraceful capitulation that closed it, he entered as a volunteer into the service of the allies against the French under the prince of Waldeck. Here he discovered as much prowess and acquired as much fame as would satisfy the ambition of most soldiers, and in conjunction with fame an almost equal proportion of rank. It was nevertheless, upon the whole, a degrading war for the confederates, and terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. In the dispute between Frederick I. the husband of Ulrica Eleonora, sister of Charles XII. and the Swedish states, De Hordt took an active part with his sovereign, and upon the failure of the conspiracy which was to have restored the Swedish crown to its accustomed influence, he was followed from court to court till he at length found a secure asylum in Switzerland under the protection of Voltaire. De Hordt, however, was not formed for inactivity, and rather than not fight at all he would fight against his best friends and his own country. Frederick of Prussia was at this time at war with both; for the seven years' war was just commenced against Sweden and Russia as well as Austria; and De Hordt accepted at his hands the command of a regiment of two battalions. The king admired his intrepidity, and reposed his utmost confidence in him: he fought in the arduous struggle with alternate success, till at length he was taken prisoner by the Russians, and, in consequence of a misunderstanding on the part of the empress, was condemned to close confinement in a narrow prison in the centre of the citadel at St. Petersburg, and debarred the use of pen, ink, and paper. In this melancholy situa-

tion he continued for upwards of two years: but at length, in consequence of some strong measures of retaliation on the part of Frederick, he was released. Just at this period the empress Elizabeth died: and the accession of Peter III. who was in the warmest degree attached to the Prussian monarch, enabled De Hordt to return to Prussia with every facility. On the close of the war, which speedily followed, he stately resided at Berlin, excepting that, in conjunction with prince Henry, he once or twice made a tour to Sweden, and afterwards to St. Petersburg: during his residence at which last court he was privy to the first proposal between Catharine II. and prince Henry, for the infamous partition of Poland. On his return to Berlin the king conferred on the count the rank of a lieutenant-general of his army, and appointed him governor of Spandau. On a second marriage he retired with his bride to a rich manor in Saxony, which she inherited from a relation: here he devoted himself to agricultural pursuits, and passed the remainder of his life in quietude and domestic comfort. He died a few years ago, and his wife survived him but a short time; an information however we are obliged to supply—for his translator makes no mention of the decease of either of them.

“Some Account of the Life and Writings of Lope Felix de Vega Carpio: by Henry Richard lord Holland.” This is an admirably arranged and well written book, and does credit to the noble author's study of true Castilian. It is unnecessary for as to enlarge on its merit, as we have copied from it in two anterior departments of the present volume. We will only therefore add, that the matter is interesting, the style chaste and easy,

easy, the metrical versions that are occasionally given correct and spirited, and the whole so agreeably executed, as to induce us to hope that his lordship will not here close his public researches into the literature of Spain.

Mr. Wool's "Biographical Memoirs of the late Joseph Warton, D.D." have *at length* rendered that justice to an excellent man, and an elegant scholar, to which he has been long entitled. There is a modesty and simplicity of style in these memoirs which is in perfect accordance with the "cool sequestered life" of the celebrated scholar to whom they relate. It appears to have been in Mr. Wool's power to have given us more, and more we should have wished for, if it would not have interfered with the sanctity of the domestic escritoir; which, in other instances, has of late been posthumously plundered in a most outrageous and sacrilegious manner.

The "Account of the Life and Writings of James Beattie, L.L.D. &c. by sir William Forbes, bart." is the work of a biographer now, alas! no more: the memoirist having, within a few months, followed the subject of his memoirs to the grave. The life of Dr. Beattie, like that of Dr. Warton, was but little variegated by strong and characteristic incidents. Beattie had great talents, and, from a happy combination of circumstances, still greater reputation. His chief works, and in truth the only ones that have a chance of perpetuity, are his *Essay on Truth*, and his *Minstrel*—both exquisite in their kind, but the latter unfinished. His professorship at Aberdeen scarcely afforded him the comforts of life that he required—certainly not those to which his abilities entitled him. Various schemes were devised to

meliorate his fortune—a pension was proposed—a West Indian sinecure, and lastly an exchange from the meagre support of the kirk to some ample provision in the English church. An admirable letter from the late archbishop of York (alas! while correcting the press we can no longer, with propriety, add *late*) seems, first of all, to have decided him in a rejection of this last proposal: and it was finally settled for him, and most wisely settled, that his best plan would be to accept of a pension. His majesty acceded to the request with a promptitude and grace that give dignity even to monarchs, and Dr. Beattie was condescendingly allowed a pension of 200*l.* per annum. He was born Oct. 25, 1735, and died in August 1803, aged sixty-eight. The work before us is chiefly epistolary, the interstices being filled up with narrative. The letters are, for the most part, of a critical character, and display Dr. Beattie's accustomed reading, taste, and liberality: the narrative is plain and unornamented, bearing in every line the stamp of rigid truth, and ambitious of nothing further.

Dr. Fenwick's "Sketch of the professional Life and Character of Dr. Clark" has enabled us to extract from it a page or two of his general history, characterising his usual habits and benevolent turn of mind; his unremitting activity and steady pursuit of the best interests of society. Beyond this we have nothing to add, for we cannot praise the style in which this sketch is written. Mr. Raymond's "Life of Thomas Dermody" is a much better performance in point of authorship, and, (notwithstanding the incorrigible attachment to low and criminal pursuits which is herein evinced,) the extraordinary incidents

incidents and sudden transitions with which the work is interspersed, the bright blaze of talents with which almost every page corruscates, even the frequent sigh which it is impossible to suppress over elevated genius thus enslaved to vice and misery, render it peculiarly interesting and impressive. Of lord Nelson we have already given as large an account of his life as we could well devote to him, and also from a biographer who has since, like himself, entered the mansions of the tomb, although by no means an account adequate to his transcendent abilities, and the almost unrivalled services he has performed for his country. We have only, therefore, now to add, that a biography of his lordship, more authentic than any one that has hitherto appeared, because more immediately published under the sanction of his noble relatives, has since been offered to the public from the pen of Mr. Harrison, in two volumes 8vo., from which we certainly should have extracted a few pages were it not that we should hereby only repeat much of what we have presented to our readers already. The work before us is written in a glowing style, perhaps too glowing for common occasions. This, however, on such a subject we can abundantly pardon: but we cannot so completely or so readily pardon the ungenerous attempt, with which it is too replete, to stigmatize a female character most nearly connected with his lordship in point of legal ties, who still triumphs over the breath of calumny, and is deserving of a better fate, for the mere purpose of raising on her ruins, could it be accomplished, the public favour in behalf of a rival whose name had been far bet-

ter buried in eternal oblivion. Mr. Blagdon's "Memoirs of the late George Morland," are entitled to little notice on the score of literary merit: on account of the public character of the subject of them, we have assigned a few pages to them in our Biographical Anecdotes.

Mr. Moore's "Lives of Cardinal Alberoni and the Duke of Ripperda" give us a successive history of two of the most pliant ministers of state and greatest hypocrites, in regard to religious professions, that ever existed. The first, by a system of the grossest and most egregious adulation, raised himself from the humble station of a gardener's son to that of a cardinal and prime minister of Spain. He was the pander to every vice of those who employed him, during the reign of Philip V. of Spain, but never disowned the religion of his forefathers. Ripperda, on the contrary, who was born a catholic in 1680, in the Dutch province of Groningen, and continued in that persuasion till he had the chance of marrying a protestant heiress, exchanged churches about the year 1710: but having received offers of high dignity and emolument from the court of Madrid a few years afterwards he repaired thither, and once more, in compliance with the established religion of his new country, embraced the catholic faith. He rose in reputation, and on Alberoni's disgrace succeeded him as prime minister. He too was disgraced in his turn, and ordered, in 1726, into confinement in the castle of Segovia. From this castle he escaped--fled to Great-Britain, and endeavoured to sell to the English minister his confidential knowledge of the politics of the Spanish court. In 1731 he

went

went to Holland, engaged with an agent of the emperor of Barbary, went with him to Mequinez, turned Mahommedan, and rose to the office of Effendi. He at length retired, on his private fortune, to Tetuan, where he died, in some degree insane, in 1737. The biography is extracted from documents of sufficient authority, and written with plainness and perspicuity.

Mr. Hayley has at length, we believe, finished his *Life of Mr. Cowper*, by a thin quarto volume of "Supplementary Pages." The letters they contain have been gathered together since the publication of the three prior volumes, and are chiefly addressed to lady Hesketh, Mr. Bagot, and Mr. Rose—Mr. Rose! the youthful, the elegant, the beloved friend of Cowper! and who now stands as much in need of a biographer as Cowper himself. To the writer of this article he was known,—and to whom was he known, that did not, like Cowper, esteem and love him?

Mr. Young's "Memoirs of Mrs. Crouch" make us lament that a woman capable of filling so affectionately the offices of daughter, sister, and patroness to her sister's children, should have been so easily, or rather should have been at all seduced, from the duties of a wife, however unfortunate in her matrimonial connexion. Yet her temptations were strong, as her attractions were many! Her life is ill written, but its perusal may do good.

Mrs. Grant's "Letters from the Mountains" are of a mixed character; they are in some respects biographic, and in others descriptive, but in both they are highly entertaining. Those who are desirous

of learning the happy art of struggling against misfortunes instead of yielding to them, and of struggling triumphantly—those who are enchanted with the wildest picturesqueness of nature, with fantastic groups of blue aerial rocks and mountains—rapid streams—precipitate and thundering waterfalls—woods so intricate that the deer can scarcely find its way through them—and glens so deep and overhung that the sun can never pierce them—may here have an abundant treat in facts and scenery painted from the life.

From the wild landscapes of nature we are led to the polished landscapes of art: and in Mr. Repton's "Enquiry into the Changes of Taste in Landscape-gardening" observe a very able defence of the system which was first successfully cultivated in this country by the celebrated Brown, but which of late has been opposed by several professional writers of considerable eminence, and especially by M. M. Price and Knight. Mr. Repton, in the work before us, admits in a considerable degree the errors which are pointed out in this system, as it has been *of late* pursued, but contends that such errors are not chargeable to the inventor or first promoter of the system, but merely to his successors, who, in such instances, have deviated from the taste and principle of their master. Mr. Loudon has furnished us with two quarto volumes upon the same subject, but pursued to a greater extent; comprising "A Treatise on forming, improving and managing Country Residences, so as to combine Architectural Fitness with Picturesque Effect, according to the Extent, Character, or Style of Situations, and the Rank, Fortune and Expenditure of the Proprietors from the

the Cottage to the Palace ; illustrated by Descriptions." Under the same head, but with a very limited approbation, we have to rank Mr. Giffard's " Designs for elegant Cottages and small Villas calculated for the Comfort and Convenience of Persons of moderate and of ample Fortune ;" in the course of which the different orders of architecture are often huddled together in the most unclassical and heterogeneous manner : and Mr. Randle's " Collection of Architectural Designs for Mansions, Casinos, Villas, Lodges, and Cottages," possessing the same distorted aim at producing picturesque effect by the same incongruous intermixture of styles that are essentially at variance with each other, and hence transferring to landscape scenery the *humano capiti cervicem equinam*.

Mr. Britton's " Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain" have been persevered in to part VI. inclusively, and continue to evince proofs of their earliest spirit and excellence. Mr. Charles Bell, in six successive " Essays on the Anatomy of Expression in Painting," has made a valuable present not to the painter only, but to all who are fond of painting, or are ambitious of distinguishing the opposite extremes of flatness and caricature from the real phenomena of movement, gesture, and passion. Mr. Prince Hoare has shewn some taste and much enthusiasm in his " Inquiry into the requisite Cultivation and present State of the Arts of Design in England:" his *inquiry*, indeed, is not confined either to *England* or to the " *present* state of the arts of design;" it might have been more for his credit, perhaps, if it had been : for in his numerous *discoastings* into remote times and foreign countries, he has

wandered rather than *travelled*—has been too frequently the sport of false guides, and been conducted to stray paths and barren quarters. We cannot close this brief sketch of the productions of the year, in regard to the fine arts, without noticing Dr. Callcott's " Musical Grammar," which, in the small and convenient size of a duodecimo, contains an accurate arrangement of the principles of modern music, together with the simplest and easiest method that has yet been exhibited of acquiring a knowledge of them. It is classically divided into the four parts of rotation, melody, harmony and rhythm.

We advance to the class of philology. Mr. Salmon, author of *Stemmata Latinitatis*, has published, in a thin octavo, the first book of his " Archæi ; or the Evenings of Scáthill." The plan is entirely taken from the *Epea Pteroenta* ; even the dialogue form is preserved, and something of the same archness attempted. We cannot praise the undertaking : the parallelisms are for the most part hunted through French and Latin, instead of through the Gothic languages. Had our author imitated Mr. Tooke in this last respect, he might, indeed, have contributed some benefit to his native tongue.

From Dr. Dawson we have received both the " Prolepsis" of his *Philologia Anglicana*, and the first number of the " *Philologia Anglicana*" itself. We have also received from Mr. Leslie a " Dictionary of the Synonymous Words and Technical Terms in the English language." The first is designed both as an improvement and commentary upon Johnson's Dictionary. In the titular explanation of

of the author himself it is intended as "a philological and synonymical dictionary of the English language; in which the words are deduced from their originals, their sense defined, and the same illustrated and supported by proper examples and notes, critical and explanatory." The attempted improvement upon Johnson consists in an omission of Greek and Latin words of very rare occurrence, in new exemplifications of such as are defectively expounded, and in an introduction of terms that had escaped the lexicographer's attention." All this is well: but the "*Notes, critical and explanatory,*" are intolerably long and tedious, and occupy by far too large a proportion of the general work. The author has an odd conception that, strictly speaking, no language has any such thing as synonyms, though it may have terms that are synonymous, that is, approaching to the nature of synonyms, but retaining a shade of difference from each other. The shortest refutation we can advance is a reference to Mr. Leslie's "Dictionary of Synonymous Words," at this moment before us. In effect, it is impossible that a language derived, as is the English, from a variety of different tongues, and different dialects—from a Greek, Latin and Celtic, as well as a Gothic stock—should not have many terms drawn from some or all of these radical sources to express the very same object, or the very same idea of such object; and consequently it is impossible that such a language should not have not only a few scattered synonyms, but a great multitude of them. We cannot, however, praise the intention of Mr. Leslie's Synonymous Dictionary altogether, which in its alphabetic list of words is

confined almost exclusively to those of common colloquial use, and then explained by remote, recondite, obsolete, or technical terms alone; as though the author had just imported from across the Irish channel a new method of *illustration*, that arrogated to itself the power of darkening what is clear and visible, instead of making clear and visible what is dark. To both these attempts, however, Dr. Dawson's as well as Mr. Leslie's, we object that the authors seem far more expert in Greek and Latin etymologies than in Celtic or Gothic. This is the grand evil in Johnson's dictionary: and it yet remains to be remedied. The *whole of the construction* of the English language, and by far *the greater part of its vocabulary* is of the true Gothic order; and unless a lexicographer be well versed in the German, Danish, and Runic dialects, in the Cimbric and Gaelic, as well as in the Greek and Latin, he must necessarily prove but a very imperfect analyser and interpreter, and of consequence but very ill qualified for his undertaking.

Some such reasoning seems to have been felt by another philologist of the year before us, Mr. G. Dyer, of Exeter; and hence in an octavo volume, which he entitles "A Restoration of the Ancient Modes of bestowing Names," he has banished Greek and Latin from our patronymic vocabulary by one sweeping proscription. Now this is to run into the other extreme. Independently of which, he has banished the classical dialects, not in favour of those of the Goths, of Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Anglo-Saxon, but in favour of the Cimbric and the Gaelic alone. Much, we acknowledge, is

is referable to this latter source, but little in comparison with what is the true and legitimate progeny of the former. He who limits himself to a Celtic origin, will be almost as much in the dark as he who attempts to resolve every thing into Greek or Latin. The Cimbric and Gaelic, or Welsh and Erse, have added a few tributary streams, but the chief supply of our etymons must be sought for alone in the great Gothic fountain.

Dr. Steuart has offered us two elegant quarto volumes, which he entitles "The Works of Sallust; to which are prefixed two Essays on the Life, Literary Character and Writings of the Historian: with Notes historical, biographical and critical." The essays and notes constitute by far the larger portion of the work: they are the result of much attention to Roman literature; and, though considerably too diffuse, are instructive, entertaining, and accurate. In his version Mr. Murphy is our translator's model; but he has used considerably more freedom with his author than ever Mr. Murphy allowed himself, although the latter cast aside his trammels to the utmost extent of concession. In Dr. Steuart we have no deficiency of spirit or elegance, but it is not the spirit or elegance of Sallust: we have often traced him through whole paragraphs without a word of prototype, and have occasionally found him exchanging similes of his author for similes of his own. The opening page in the translation is by no means so licentious as many that we could point out; but the reader has no need to proceed farther than this page to be convinced of the truth of these observations.

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Upon the whole, we have little to boast of in the department of translations of the ancient Classics, within the period to which we are limited, independently of Dr. Steuart's version of Sallust: yet we must except an octavo volume of "Translations, chiefly from the Greek Anthology; with Tales and Miscellaneous Poems," published anonymously, but exhibiting great taste in the selection, and merit in the execution; and a verse translation of "The Satires of Persius, with the Latin Text and Notes," published also anonymously: the text corrected from Casaubon; the notes are truly explanatory and instructive, and the versification, if not peculiarly refined and musical, is at least on a par with the original; animated, indignant, and faithful in its interpretation. To these we may add that, Dr. Reid's "Analysis of Aristotle's Logic, with Remarks," which has hitherto been only known as an appendix to one of Lord Kaimes's Sketches of the History of Man, is now published, as it well deserves to be, in a separate form.

"The Prose Works of John Milton, with a Life of the Author," have been carefully republished by a synod of elegant scholars, and grace the year in the form of four volumes octavo. Milton is the first epic poet of modern ages, and almost the first of every age: and if not the first prose writer of his country, there are but two or three, even to the present hour, who have any pretensions to precede him. The republication, in a collected and regular form, of the productions of such a man, is a national concern, and we have no doubt will be patronised accordingly. The biography, which is minute

nute and expressive, is the production of Dr. Charles Symmons ; who is also one of the most copious annotators upon the general work. The translators of his Latin pieces are Mr. Robert Fellows and Mr. Francis Wrangham, who have equally executed their task with fidelity and spirit. Mr. W. Gifford has translated a few of the poetical quotations.

“The Complete Works in Philosophy, Politics and Morals, of the late Dr. Benjamin Franklin,” have also for the first time been collected and arranged. They occupy three volumes in octavo, including an account of his early life, drawn up from memoirs written by himself, and which we cannot avoid wishing had been published entire. The extensive celebrity of this moralist and statesman, the importance of many of his writings, and the deep influence they have exerted over the American republic, justify such an undertaking, and will ensure it success.

The region of domestic poetry has offered us but little within the precincts of the year ; and that little by no means of an exalted character. Not a single epic or didactic poem of any kind, and but one dramatic piece that has any pretensions to a poetic character, we mean Mr. Maurice’s “Fall of the Mogul,” a tragedy founded on an interesting portion of Indian history, and attempted to be cast on the Grecian model. The whole, independently of this, are mere fugitive and evanescent pieces, in the shape of ballads, odes, epistles, occasional translations, tales and epitaphs. We shall cite only the titles of a few, and from these the reader may form his judgement

of the general nature of the rest.

“The Birds of Scotland, with other Poems: by James Grahame,” published, we suppose, because of the deserved popularity of the author’s poem called “The Sabbath,” but in every respect far inferior to the latter, and which would not, perhaps, have been published otherwise. “Poems by Edward Rushton,” concerning which we only add, that they are the effusions of a poor blind bard, labouring to support himself and family by this only mean that appears to remain to him, and that they are tender, pathetic, and elegant. “Wild Flowers ; or Pastoral and Rural Poetry : by Robert Bloomfield,”—flowers plucked hastily and indiscriminately, and with so little selection that there are almost as many weeds as ornamental blossoms. “The Falls of the Clyde ; or the Fairies : a Scottish dramatic Pastoral, in five Acts : with three preliminary Dissertations ;” more prose than poetry, and as much nonsense as either. “Poetical Recreations: by Anthony Harrison. 2 vols. 8vo.” “The Wild Harp’s Murmurs ; or Rustic Strains : by D. Service.” The former, the work of an attorney’s clerk, who, for ought we know, may be dextrous at *engrossing* parchment, but will never *engross* the Muses : the latter, the production of a cobbler, who has mistaken his own stall for Parnassus, and an Iambic foot for the foot of one of his customers. “Tales in Verse, critical, satirical and humorous : by Thomas Holcroft”—tales in verse, but not *in poetry* : stuff more wretched and despicable never defiled waste paper.

Of republications in some new form,

form, or with additional matter, we have to notice Mr. G. Chalmers's corrected and enlarged edition of "The Poetical Works of Sir David Lyndsay, of the Mount, Lyon King at Arms, under James V.," in three vols. octavo, accompanied with a life of the author, introductory dissertations, and an appropriate glossary. This work was wanted, and bating the quaintness and causticity of his style, Mr. Chalmers has ably fulfilled the office he has undertaken.

Mr. Herbert, we are glad to see, has published a second part of his "Translations" and "Miscellaneous Poetry." The translations, in the present volume, are from some admirable little pieces in the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and other bards of the southern, rather than of the northern regions of Europe, as in the anterior volume. The merit we have formerly pointed out is continued with an equal tide through the present effusions. Mrs. Robinson's "Poetical Works," are now for the first time collected; and, by the addition of several pieces never before published, extend to three volumes octavo. In the new matter we meet with nothing that is peculiarly prominent, and the old is too well known to render it necessary that we should enlarge upon it. Mr. W. Smythe has published an augmented edition of his "English Lyrics," enriched by some few additional pieces of equal merit; and Mr. Sotheby has republished, in two elegant volumes octavo, his very admirable translation of Wieland's "Oberon." His epic poem, entitled "Saul," does not fall within the range of the existing year. We shall suitably notice it in our ensuing Retrospect.

Whether it be owing to a want of taste in the frequenters of the theatre, or a want of talents in the writers for it, we cannot stay to determine, but most certain it is, that nothing can be more worthless than the dramatic representations of the present day. Even the following, which we select as some of the best specimens of the season, may probably be cast into the gulf of oblivion before the barren catalogue reaches the hands of our readers.— "The School for Friends; a Comedy written by Mr. Chambers;" unimpeachable in its morality, but drowsy in its dialogue, and in its characters indistinct. "The Hunter of the Alps, a Drama; interspersed with Music: by Mr. Diamond, jun." well adapted for modern effect, and temporary applause, but designed neither for futurity nor for the closet. "Five Miles Off; or the Finger-Post." "Thirty Thousand; or Who's the Richest?" both the production of Mr. T. Dibdin, and both of merely diurnal merit, nor pretending, as we suppose, to any thing beyond. The former is a comedy in three acts: the latter a comic opera. "Spanish Dollars; or the Priest of the Parish." This, by its author, Mr. Cherry, is denominated an *operatic sketch*. We scarcely understand the expression: and it is not to be wondered at, therefore, that we should not understand the *thing* it is meant to express. "The Three and the Deuce; a Comic Opera in three Acts: by Prince Hoare." This, we are told, has been performed at both houses with success.— Mr. Hoare should not be too greedy of good fortune: had he been prudent, he would have contented himself with such success.

By bringing *Three and the Deuce* before the public, we think he has made an unlucky *throw*, and that he runs a strong chance of being *gammoned*.

The two best novels that have occurred to us in the course of the year, are, "Human Beings," by Mr. Francis Latham; and "Leonora," by Miss Edgeworth, both of whom have been long initiated into the science of novel-writing, and seem to have obtained high and patent posts in that department. The plot of the former is devoted to the recompence of honest and virtuous love in low life, through the instrumentality of a most excellent and persevering philanthropist. The moral, indeed, is not new; but the fable itself has sufficient claims to originality, the characters to discrimination of features, the narrative to spirit and interest. The fable of the latter is also sufficiently original, and its characters sufficiently distinguished, but its morality is more exceptionable; or, to express ourselves in correcter language, the *impure* characters are, in general, painted so much more piquantly and with so much more relief than the *pure*, that we are afraid the greater number of its fair readers may be rather induced to follow the former, while they approve the latter. Leonora is a faithful wife and an excellent woman: lady Olivia, an artful sentimentalist of the French and German schools of cosmopolitanism, who, with the cant of purity and sensibility for ever on her lips, is perpetually endeavouring to undermine the foundation of private happiness and domestic virtue.—She succeeds in obtaining the friendship and confidence of Leonora, and afterwards in intriguing with the heart of Leonora's husband,

and obtaining the full possession of his affections. A dangerous fit of illness, just as he was on the point of quitting his wife for his mistress, and his native land for a foreign country, is made the mean of recalling him to a sense of conjugal duty—and the whole ends as it should do. The character of an elegant and intriguing French profligate, under the name of Gabrielle de P——, the confidential friend of lady Olivia, is drawn to the life, but affords, we are afraid, no useful lesson.

"Donald" is the hero of a novel, published anonymously, who under this name represents a trick to which the novellist has often had recourse before as the basis of his plot, and which consists in the foster-mother's substituting her own son for the nursling placed under her care, and retaining the nursling in his stead. Time most marvellously sets all things to rights; the young impostor, in spite of every advantage of fashion and education, is addicted to all the vices of low life; while the injured boy, in the midst of poverty and wretchedness, feels the instinctive influence of higher birth, and presses forward in the pursuit of every thing that is exalted and noble: the substitution is at length discovered, and we have no reason to complain of the writer's retributive justice. The work is well written; busy, interesting, progressive, complete.

"Zefloya; or The Moor: a Romance of the fifteenth Century: by Charlotte Dacre." This lady, who used to write stimulating love verses in the newspapers under the name of Rosa Matilda, has here composed a stimulating novel after the manner of *The Monk*—the same lust—the same infernal agents—the same voluptuous language.

language. What need we say more?"

"Epicharis ; a Translation by C. T." "Madame de Maintenon ; translated from the French of Madame de Genlis." These translations may be called historical romances, in which real histories are resorted to as the basis of the respective fables, but inflected to the will or caprice of the respective writers. The first pretends to give

us the secret history of the conspiracy of Piso against Nero—a development of the real character of Agrippina, and the emperor's infamous conduct towards Octavia : the second offers us a fanciful narrative of the events that elevated Madame de Maintenon to the throne of France. We cannot approve of such perversion of actual facts.

FOREIGN LITERATURE

Of the Year 1806.

CHAPTER I.

BIBLICAL AND THEOLOGICAL:

Containing a Sketch of the Productions of Germany, Italy, France, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and the American States.

WE cannot suffer the high degree of satisfaction that has been expressed from various quarters in regard to the fulness and variety of the present department in our Retrospect of last year to pass, without acknowledging the pleasure which such information has communicated to us; nor without feeling an additional stimulus to an indefatigable exertion in future. To the difficulties we have still to contend with from the continuance of a war which has not only struck at the very basis of all continental literature, but almost shut us out from obtaining copies of what has actually been produced, we need not advert. They are of themselves sufficiently prominent; and we trust our readers will esteem us not altogether undeserving of thanks for what we have once more been able to collect, rather than entitled to censure for what we may have omitted.

We shall begin, as usual, with the GERMAN biblicists. M. Seiler, whose name is well known to the critical world, has published a new German version of the New Testa-

ment, in which one or two texts, supposed to be spurious, are omitted, and the difficult or contested passages are attempted to be explained from the best labours of modern commentators. It is accompanied with a rich and copious annotation, partly derived and partly original. M. Dereiser, who is engaged in a new translation of the entire Bible, has completed and published the second part of his third volume, which extends to the book of Job inclusively. He has largely availed himself of the previous excerpts of his fellow-labourers in the same field, the younger Schultens and Eichhorn. M. Jong, in his "Erster Nachtrag zur Siegesgeschichte der Christlichen Religion," has attempted a new interpretation of the Apocalypse: but we cannot perceive that he has thrown much fresh light upon this recondite prophecy. We may be allowed, indeed, to pause at the present moment, before we adopt any fresh system, since its denunciations have now been directed by christians of different persuasions against almost every church, and every religion, and every

every political government in the world, of any degree of eminence, from the period of its promulgation, without appearing to exhibit any specific proofs of its having been immediately intended for any of them:—against heretics, infidels, and papists: against heathens and Mahometans: against ancient Rome and modern Rome: against Lutherans and Calvinists: against the king and the church of England: against the Bourbons and the Bonapartes.

The Philosophisch-kritisch Commentar über das Neue Testament.---“Philosophical, Critical, and Historical Commentary on the New Testament, by Professor Paulus,” to which we have heretofore adverted, has proceeded to the third part of his last and correct edition. It displays the same boldness of interpretation, the same latitude of fancy and pruriency of conjectural criticism, which so peculiarly characterise the preceding parts, and have so strong a tendency to pull down this citadel by a repair of the outworks. We are not surprised that this book should have excited alarm; nor are we sorry that the alarm has been given: it has been sounded from various quarters, but chiefly from a very able work of M. Sandbichler, entitled *Eine Stimme des rufenden in der Wüste*—“A Voice of one crying in the Wilderness.” We trust professor Paulus will not be inattentive to this voice.

Among the multiplicity of books upon christian theology in general, we may mention that M. H. D. Hermes has re-published, with many additions and improvements, his *Allgemeines Religions und Erbauungsbuch für Christen jeder Religion*—“Universal Theology and Book of Education for Christians of every Religion;” while M.

T. A. Hermes has offered to the world a dissertation *Ueber das Selbst oder Eigenwirken im Christenthum*—“On Free-will and Spontaneity in Christianity:” both works are written in opposition to the doctrines of philosophical necessity, and of the argument *à priori* concerning the existence of the Deity. M. Heinrich is proceeding with his valuable *Beyträge zur Beförderung der Theologischen Wissenschaften, &c.*—“Contributions towards promoting the study of Theological Science, more especially by a critical Illustration of the New Testament.” And Dr. Henke has had sufficient encouragement to have enabled him to complete the fourth fascicle of his *Museum für Religions-wissenschaft*—“Museum for Religious Knowledge.” Both these works are highly deserving of extensive circulation, and we trust they will obtain it.

There has been much speculation and some idle fancy lately evinced among German religionists respecting the appearance of disembodied spirits after death, chiefly in consequence of the positive assertion of a writer of some repute, in a work published upon this very subject, that he had seen the apparition of his own wife after her decease. M. Connabich has published, in reference to this point, an octavo volume of *Gedanken über die menschliche Seele, deren Fortdauer und Erscheinung nach dem Tode*—“Thoughts on the Human Soul, and on its Post-existence, and Apparition after Death;” and M. Sentinis, a work that has now extended to two octavo volumes: the first of which is entitled *Was Steht Vom zustande nach dem Tode in der Bibel?*—“What is the State of Man after Death according to the Bible?” and the second, or continuation of
the

the enquiry, Elpizon; oder über meine Fortdauer im Tode—"Elpizon; or Thoughts on my own Post-existence upon Death." Upon the whole, the German writers seem much disposed to encourage the belief of occasional re-appearances. We cannot enter into the dispute, but ought not to quit it without observing, that the greater part of their reasoning is *visionary*, whatever the subject of it may be.

There is something far more substantial in M. Bauer's Handbuch der Geschichte der Hebraeischen Nation—"Manual of the History of the Jewish Nation:" of which the second volume, in the octavo form, has lately reached us, and completes the work. The whole contains nearly nine hundred pages, and the price is six florins. It is an excellently arranged compilation, and extends from the origin of the Hebrews as a people, to the destruction of their political existence.

Whilst adverting to this extraordinary and distinctive race, we will remark, lest we should not have a more convenient place for it, that such is the concourse of Jews at this moment at Basle in Switzerland, that a Hebrew newspaper for their use is on the point of being established in this city, containing, like other journals of a similar kind, a regular series of the political and commercial events of the day.

Before we quit the German empire, if we may yet call it an empire, it becomes us to observe, that Dindorf has by this time, nearly if not altogether, completed his very admirable "Hebrew and Chaldaic Dictionary," enriched by the addition of a truly valuable commentary on the books of the Old Testament, from a careful perusal of the different dialects, and the suggestions of the best scholiasts.

The latin title runs as follows: Dindorphi novum Lexicon Linguae Hebraico-Chaldaicae, cum Commentario in Libros Vet. Test. Dialectorum cognatarum imprimis Ope Animadversionibusque præstantiss. Interpret. locuplet.

We are led insensibly to the biblical literature of ITALY; amongst the most valuable productions of which is a select Hebrew dictionary, from the labours of the indefatigable De Rossi, printed at Parma, in a thin octavo, and bearing the title of Lexicon Hebraicum Selectum, quo ex antiquo et inedito R. Parchonis Lexico novas ac diversas rariorum et difficiliorum Vorum Significationes sistit, Joh. Bern. De Rossi, Linguarum orientalium Professor:—"A Select Hebrew Lexicon, in which various new and different Significations of unusual and difficult Terms are propounded from an old and inedited Lexicon of Rabbi Parchon, by J. B. De Rossi, Professor of Oriental Languages." Rabbi Parchon flourished in the 12th century, and was highly esteemed for his learning: his lexicon, which he entitled *מחברת*, was finished in 1161. It was well known to contain a rich treasure of Hebrew philosophy; and professor De Rossi, in thus developing it to the public, has rendered a very acceptable service, and put us into possession of a useful supplement to his own *Varie Lectiones Veteris Testamenti*, which we have already noticed with high approbation in a former Retrospect. The publication of this lexicon, however, is not the whole for which we are now indebted to this admirable Hebraist. He has imprinted, in their original Hebrew, some very curious manuscript lucubrations of Rabbi Emanuel on particular passages in the Psalms, a judicious commentator on the books of

the Old Testament, who flourished towards the beginning of the fourteenth century ; and has accompanied the Hebrew with a Latin version : and has also published a Latin Dissertation on the unsettled question, "What became of the Edition of the Alcoran, supposed to have been printed at Venice, in Arabic Characters, from Pagnini's Types, about the Beginning of the sixteenth Century ?"—Both these, as well as the Lexicon, are printed at the imperial press at Parma. The title to the former is, "R. Immanuelis Filii Salomonis Scholia in Selecta Loca Psalmorum, ex inedito ejus Commentario decerpsit ac Latine vertit J. B. De Rossi : " and that to the latter, "De Corano Arabico Venetiis Paganini Typis impresso sub Initio Sec. xvi. Dissertatio J. B. De Rossi."

In FRANCE, the late legalized license of the Jewish worship, and the admission of the Jewish people to the full rights of citizenship, have excited much inquiry into the consistency of such a regulation with the dispensations of Providence, and the curse which, on account of the disobedience of the ancestors of this people, has been inflicted upon them for so many ages. The chief opponent of the Jews is a M. de Bonald, who, among other attacks upon them, introduced a long and violent article into the French Mercury of Feb. 8, last : the best supporter of their cause is a Jewish lady, who, in a direct answer, entitled "Observations sur un Article de M. de Bonald sur les Juifs," has evinced an equal degree of historic and political knowledge, and a very expert, and we believe, an unanswerable train of arguments in favour of the emancipation of her own race. She abounds, as may well be expected, with compliments

to Bonaparte, some of which are rather too highly seasoned for a popular relish on this side of the water. There is, however, a work which has lately appeared at Paris, with which we have been still better pleased. It is entitled "The Involuntary Apologists : or the Christian Religion proved and defended, from the very Writings of the Philosophers themselves : intended, by clear and demonstrative Arguments, to refute the more usual Objections of Infidelity, and to enable Persons in general to convince themselves of its Veracity." We have had several successful attempts of the same kind in our own country ; and we trust that an equal success will attend this new effort in France, where infidelity is roving about with still wider strides, and upon a larger sphere. There is one pamphlet which, though published at Geneva, has had, as we understand, a rapid and extensive circulation through France, and which we should like to see translated into English. It is a sermon preached by M. Cellerier, entitled, *Le Danger des mauvais Livres*—"The Danger of bad Books." The text is Rev. x. 10. *Je pris le livre—et je le devorai.* The sermon contains a great deal of popular eloquence as well as judicious observation, upon a subject of the utmost consequence to the moral and political well-being of all civilised states.

From HOLLAND we have received nothing that is particularly worthy of notice. A very useful journal has been established at Amsterdam, under the title of *Bibliothek van theologische Letterkund*—"Library of theological Literature," which has every chance of succeeding. It has already reached the publication of its fourth number, hereby

hereby completing its first volume, containing 700 pages. We also perceive that not less than nine answers have been returned to the following prize question, proposed by the Amsterdam society for the promotion of religious knowledge—"How comes it to pass that in our own dark and distressful Times, Insensibility should be so extensive, and a due Attention to the Dispensations and Judgements of God so little observable?" The answer to which the prize has been awarded is the composition of M. C. A. Van den Broeck, preacher at Oud-Beizerland; and it seems to deserve so honorary a distinction.

Among the biblical expositions of most celebrity in DENMARK, we may mention M. Larsen's "Critical and Exegetic Commentary on certain Predictions of the Prophets," which, from the specimen we have seen of it, is likely to be a work of sound reasoning and plausible conjecture. The specimen we refer to is an inaugural dissertation on the prophecies of Zephaniah, constituting the first number in the series, entitled, "Commentarii critico-exegetici in quorundam Prophetarum Vaticinia Specimen primum, Vaticinia Zephaniæ complectens, quod pro summis in Philosophiâ Honoribus Examine Facult. Philosoph. Havniensis submitit Larsen." The author divides this book of prophecy into three distinct parts, besides an epilogue or general conclusion, in which he conjectures it to have been the prophet's intention to recapitulate, in a summary manner, the subject of his preceding labours. There is also an inaugural dissertation by M. Prost, on the much disputed topic of the Canticles, that has excited some attention. The title he has given to

it is, "De Carmine Hebræorum *erotico* quod vulgo inscribitur Canticum Canticorum." We cannot agree with him in his opinion, which is, that these *erotic* songs or amoretts were written by some poet of a later age than the monarch whose name they bear, and who only published them under the name of Solomon to give them additional celebrity and authority. With the writings of the German critics upon this singular book—the remarks of Lessing, Herder, Döderlein, Rösenmüller—M. Prost seems well acquainted. Had he been as deeply versed in the translations and critical remarks of Mellesigenio and Bossuet, and particularly in those of our ingenious countryman Mr. Good, who, with an ample knowledge of the Oriental languages and Oriental literature, has compared it with a variety of Persian and Indian poems of a similar cast, and nearly similar antiquity, we have no doubt that M. Prost would have formed a different, and less derogatory conjecture. Professor Tode's religious works have been republished, with a supplement of matter collected since his decease: and Dr. Munter has made an acceptable present to the world in a volume of "Thoughts on Natural Theology," which he has drawn up from his popular lectures on this science.

In SWEDEN, the very valuable miscellany of the Rev. Dr. J. Möller, bishop of Gottland, has, we are afraid, received a total cessation by the death of its excellent author. We allude to his journal of "Lectures on different Religious Subjects," commenced about five years since, and now extending to seven octavo volumes. The talents and erudition, the judgement and liberality, displayed throughout the whole

whole of this interesting register, make us greatly regret that it should meet with so abrupt a close ; and especially by so irreparable a loss. There is an essay, in vol. iii, on the subject of parochial schools, and the best means of instructing the children of the peasantry, that we should extremely like to see translated into English at the present moment ; as containing the practical result of a wise and excellent system of regulations that have been long carried into effect, under the superintendence of the Swedish government, through every part of the country, and have been accompanied with the most beneficial consequences. Whilst upon this subject, we will just mention that count Schwerin, rector of Sala, has also just published, at Stockholm, a very excellent volume of " Lectures on Education and general Cultivation ;" in which an attention to elemental learning among the poor, and especially such as is calculated to impress on the heart a deep reverence for religion, is duly inculcated. An anonymous writer has also given, at Stockholm, an interesting " Account of the Conversion of the Lappians or Laplanders : " and M. Ludeke, of Nodkoping, one of the chaplains to his majesty, has received orders to translate the national Catechism of Serebelius, into German, for the use of the Swedish schools in Pomerania ; while Dr. Hackenburg, of Stockholm, has received similar orders respecting the Swedish Liturgy : it being the laudable intention of his majesty to assimilate, as nearly as possible, the national religion, national laws,

and national instruction, throughout the whole of his territories. Few public characters have been more entitled to the honour of a funeral oration than the late M. Rosenalder ; and M. Adlerbath has been deservedly appointed to commemorate his virtues. He was the founder and perpetual president of the Stockholm academy of sciences ; to the establishment of which he subscribed 8,338 crowns in the year 1777. To the university of Upsal he also made a present of his rich collection of medals, as well as of 600 crowns for the purchase of additional medals :—the university has since received the sumptuous gift of his select and curious library.

The AMERICAN States, still chiefly indebted for their theological readings to books exported from Great Britain, have offered us little of prominent value. The Rev. W. Price, and Rev. Jos. Jones, of Wilmington, Delaware, are about to republish, in four quarto volumes, Dr. Gill's Exposition of the New Testament : a committee of the North Consociation of Hartford county has already published an abridgement of Henry on Prayer ; and a great variety of religious journals have been lately started, the profits of which are to be appropriated to missionary purposes. Among these we may mention " The Connecticut Evangelical Magazine," published at Hartford ; " The Massachuset's Missionary Magazine," at Boston ; " The Piscataqua Evangelical Magazine," at Portsmouth ; " The Panoplist, or Christian Armoury," Charlestown.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL AND MATHEMATICAL:

Comprising the chief Productions of Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Denmark, Sweden, and the American States.

THE medical and chirurgical contributions of Germany within the range of our present lucubrations are numerous, and several of them important. M. Soemmering, under the title of "Abbildungen des menschlichen Hoer-Organen," has published a very accurate and valuable description of the human organs of hearing. The form is folio;—there is an accompaniment of five well executed plates, and the price is eleven florins. At Stutgard, M. Storr has offered some useful "Researches into the Nature and Treatment of Hypochondriasis"-----*Untersuchen über den Begriff*: and M. Elsaesser a neat "Treatise on the Operation for the Cataract"---*Über die Operation des grauen Staars*: in which, if there be little that is new, there is much that is well arranged, plain, simple, and perspicuous. We have met with a variety of anatomical works that are possessed of considerable merit: the chief are M. Hesselbach's, printed at Arnstad, and entitled *Vollständige Anleitung zur Zergliederungskunde*, "A complete Treatise on the Anatomy of the Human Body." The size is quarto, and the whole will probably extend to three volumes: at present we have only been able to obtain the first part of the first volume. In the octavo form, M. Oechy has published, at Prague, the first volume of a work of the same nature,

entitled "Bandes Menschenkoerpers:" this volume contains the branches of osteology and myology: they are correctly given, but not always with a sufficiency of synonyms, so that foreigners will occasionally be at a loss to follow the writer. Hufeland has advanced to the fourth volume of his *System der Praktischen Heilkunde*—"System of Practical Medicine;" and has continued his "Theapeutics" to the close of the second section, which is an able treatise on cutaneous diseases and the effects of poisons. Wollkop has also completed the second volume of his *Untersuchen über den Blutaussfluss*---"Observations on the Bloody Flux;" in which he discovers just as violent and indiscriminate an attachment to the Brunonian system as at first.

Upon the whole, however, the Brunonian system in Germany appears to have past its zenith; and, if we mistake not, Dr. Gall's *Cranioscopy*, which is of still later date, is also upon the decline. The Germans embrace the crudest fancies and speculations of literature, with a heat that renders it impossible for them to support long—it is a fever of the ephemeral type, and soon spends itself. Dr. Gall's friends still flatter him that he is possessed of all the popularity of Lavater; but we find him exposed to both solid and satiric attacks in such works as Bartell's "*Bemerkungen*,"

kungen," and the anonymous publications of "Antigall;" Darstellung und Beleuchtung des Gallischen Systems—"Exposition and Illustration of the Gallian System;" and Reisen einer Schädellehrers—"Travels of a Craniologist." The philosopher opened his lectures at Marburg in August last, but had few pupils; from Marburg he travelled to Heidelberg, to engage in public debate with his opponent Scherman, yet he was here less successful than at Marburg.

M. Link of Leipsic has made a valuable present to the public in his Versuch einer Geschichte und Physiologie—"Dissertation on Animal History and Physiology." It extends to two volumes 8vo, of which the first is appropriated to the *general physiology* of animals, their exterior anatomy, powers, and conformation;—the second, to their *particular physiology*, interior conformation, and the structure and functions of the viscera. M. Doerner, under the title of "Neue Galvanische Versuche," has published at Tübingen a German version of Nysten's Galvanic Experiments on the Muscles of Man, and other warm-blooded Animals. M. Heidemann has presented the first volume of his Völlständige Theorie, &c.—"Complete Theory of Galvanic Electricity." M. Hersch of Barenth, and Dr. Fischer of Heldbourghausen, have both translated, in separate works, Leroy's valuable Treatise on Maternal Medicine, or the means of bringing up and preserving the health of children. The title of the first version is *Hygea als Mütter*; of the second, *Heilkunde für Mütter*.

We have still a variety of works upon *forensic* medicine, a branch of science too little studied in our own country, but which seems to be

pushed to an unnecessary extent in many parts of the continent—of these the chief are, Medicinische Merwürdigkeiten für Criminal-Richter, Aerzte, und Prediger—"Medical Memorabilia, for the Use of Judges, Physicians, and Clergymen," and the Allgemeines Archiv für die Gesundheit's Polizei—"General Repository for Medical Police."

In FRANCE, we notice one work of something of the same nature, but carried to a still greater extreme: it is by M. Eusebius Salverte, and is entitled Des Rapports de la Médecine avec la Politique—"On the Connection of Medicine with Political Science:" in which the ingenious author endeavours to prove that every class and order of society ought to be in some measure acquainted with the general theory of medicine, as the best mean of precluding them from myriads of evils, in body, mind, and imagination, to which they are perpetually exposed. There is a degree of sophistry pervading this work which we believe to have been undesigned on the part of the writer, but which is not a whit less sophistry on this account. We have not the shadow of a doubt that the popular study of medicine would produce, and has actually produced, more general mischief than a total ignorance of the science would have done among the people at large. Here, as in every other case, "a little learning is a dangerous thing;" and for one poor sufferer who is amended by the kind officiousness of lady-doctors at their country-seats, it would not be difficult to prove that a dozen are marred.

In an octavo volume, entitled De l'Influence de la Nuit, &c.—"On the Influence of Night over Diseased

Diseased Persons," we have met with a collection of memoirs of some importance, which have obtained prizes from the medical society at Brussels, in answer to the following questions proposed by the society for examination: "Does the Night possess any Influence over Persons who are Ill? Are there Diseases in which this Influence is more or less apparent? What is the Physical Cause of such Influence?" The memoirs here published are six in number: the prize proposed was a gold Napoleon medal, of the value of 200 francs. Fourteen candidates returned essays; but though the prize was unanimously adjudged to M. de la Prade, physician to the civil and military hospital at Montbrison, there were five others conceived to be so essentially meritorious, that the adjudicators resolved upon rewarding the authors with two secondary and three accessory prizes, and of publishing the essays conjointly. The whole of these memoirists answer the first question affirmatively; and of course the next subject of enquiry is into the cause of the influence in question: M. Prade, and M. Rymone, and in truth most of the writers, agree in ascribing a directly stimulating effect to light, and a directly sedative effect to darkness; but, with respect to the first observation, it should be remarked that strong light always exhausts, and probably, from the phosoxygen hereby produced, or the abstraction of oxygen from the body by its peculiar affinity for light: and next, if mere darkness produce a directly opposite or sedative effect, darkness must itself be a distinct agent, a substance *sui generis*, a position which, though it have been sometimes advanced with respect

to cold, we should scarcely conceive any modern chemist would maintain with respect to darkness. M. Murat, physician at Montpelier, another and one of the best informed and most ingenious of the candidates, ascribes the common effects perceived during the darkness of night to a different cause, and conceives that, according to the laws of the animal economy, a series or rotation of changes takes place in the human body in the course of every day: these he regards as consisting of four: and he hence attempts to account for the feverish state which is always induced toward evening; as he does also, from combining this circumstance with the common causes and phenomena of fever in general, for the species of fever which is more peculiarly the subject of sensation. Upon the whole, however, the inquiry is still left very considerably in the dark: for while it is yet doubtful whether any such diurnal rotation of temperament take place in the constitution, even admitting with M. Murat that it does, we have not the smallest glimpse to instruct us as to the cause of such rotation: whether it be owing to solar influence, to the influence of light generally, or to any other agency.

Melanges de Physiologie, de Physique, et de Chimie, &c.--- "Miscellanies of Physiology, Physics, Chemistry, &c., by Claude Roucher de Ratle," 2 vols. 8vo. These miscellanies are a disgrace to the Paris press: the author out-Mesmer's Mesmer himself, and supposes that by pressing his lower ribs with his fingers, and intensely thinking of a person who may be either present or absent, provided the absence do not exceed the limit of three hundred feet, he will instantly

stantly become acquainted with the whole train of thoughts, and the profoundest secrets that occupy the mind of such person ; unless indeed such person himself should be so deeply initiated into the arcana of this newly discovered science of sympathy, as to apply his hand, at the same time, to the back part of his head; for the express purpose of breaking the chain of intelligential agency—a charm which is sure to succeed, and the only charm that can prevent the unquestionable communication of his ideas. Such is the trash which in the present instance is suffered to fill two octavo volumes, and is dignified by the appellation of *physiology, physics, and chemistry*!! Nouveaux Elemens de la Science de l'Homme---“New Elements of the Science of Man:” by P. J. Barthez, physician to the emperor and king. The author commences well, and presents the reader with some preliminary observations on the principles of life and motion. But he seems, soon, to grow weary of his task, and leaves it incomplete. He is a materialist ; but does not give us any specific reason why vital motion may not continue for ever, resolving the whole, which is by far the easiest way of settling the enquiry, into a grand, universal, and primordial law, which man is as much compelled to obey as he is every other law of nature. Yet death is only a sleep—and as sleep is often *pleasant*, so death itself may be often *pleasant* also. To which we would add, that as sleep is also sometimes *unpleasant*, so death perhaps may sometimes prove *a little unpleasant* as well.

Considerations sur les Etres Organisés---“Observations on Organised Beings:” by J. C. Delametherie, 2 vols. 8vo. This work

is designed, first, to prove the resemblance which subsists in the general physiology of animals and vegetables ; next, to offer a new methodical classification ; and lastly, to establish the galvanic fluid as the true source and medium of nervous action, and as being secreted for this very purpose by the brain. We do not approve of the new classification here presented to us—we cannot suffer vegetables to enter into the chain of sentient beings—though we are ready to admit of a great and wonderful similarity of phenomena in their respective structures. In regard to the identity of the galvanic and nervous fluids, the experiments here referred to are by no means sufficient to convince us. The idea has of late years been started by many physiologists, both of our own country and of the continent, but we have hitherto acquired nothing like certainty. This work nevertheless will by no means detract from M. Delametherie's established reputation: it is not always that he has intermixed his fanciful conjectures with so much legitimate reasoning, and so many fair appeals to physical and established facts.

On the subject of natural history in a more detailed form, we have to notice M. Thomas's Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire Naturelle des Sangsues,---“Dissertations on the Natural History of Leeches ;” in which the author shews himself to have been an attentive observer of the economy of this curious worm, and has given a variety of useful regulations for its preservation in a state of confinement. In a series of instructive letters M. Angeleny has given his own method, from long experience, well worth attending to, of rearing the silk-worm,

worm, and cultivating the mulberry tree for its nutriment. He has proved the practicability of naturalising this plant in situations considerably below the mean temperature of Great Britain.

DENMARK, in the class of physiology, has to boast of the first part, comprising two volumes, of a very valuable work by M. C. G. Rafn, of the royal college of economy and commerce of Copenhagen, entitled *Naturhistorie for hver Mand, &c.*—"Natural History for every Class of Men, describing the Internal Construction and External Make of Mammalian Animals, their Abodes and Manner of Living, their Utility and Noxiousness to Man." The species chiefly described are the monkey, badger, sloth, ant-eater, armadillo, elephant, rhinoceros, camel, stag, camelopard, bison, goat, sheep, antelope, ox, horse, swine. Mr. Rafn's talents as a naturalist are not now to be estimated for the first time—his dissertation on the torpid state of hibernating animals has long secured for him a high degree of reputation in this pleasing branch of physics. The work, so far as it goes, is a considerable improvement upon Fleischer's *Naturhistorie*, in consequence of its embracing all the later discoveries of physiologists, and especially of Parmentier, Marshall, and Thaer, among agriculturists; and of Forster, Pennant, Pallas, Vaillant and Hearne, among zoosophists. Upon the whole, it is a work that Denmark was much in want of. In conjunction with Rafn's "Natural History," we may mention M. Olufsen's "Rural Economy of Denmark." It is a code of practical and truly valuable directions, drawn up from the best authorities, and exhibits the agri-

ture of the Danes in a very respectable light.

In SWEDEN, a sumptuous and extensive botanical work has commenced, under the superintendence of M. M. Palmstruck and Verens, entitled *Svensk Botanick*—"Swedish Botany." The delineations and descriptions are intended to include four hundred distinct plants: the entire work will comprise sixty-six numbers, of which twelve will constitute a volume; twenty-seven numbers are already published, each of which contains six coloured plates and an equal proportion of text. We are glad to find that M. Quensel's "Natural History of Sweden," commenced last year under the title of "*Svensk Zoologi, eller Svenska Djurens Historia, med illuminerade figurer*," is still continued. Few writers have been better qualified for such a task than M. Quensel, who was professor, in chemistry and natural philosophy, of the royal academy of cadets at Stockholm; nor have many plans been better digested, or bade fairer for success. It offers progressively the synonyms of each animal in different languages, its general characteristic, and a specific and particular description. Unfortunately, the original projector died soon after its commencement; yet it seems to be continued with spirit. A number is published quarterly, and six constitute a volume. Many of the coloured prints are excellent.

Whilst upon the subject of zoology, we must not omit to notice, as an honour to the Russian press and pencil, as well as to Russian literature in general, that M. Drunpelmann, a learned physician of Riga, is publishing by subscription a very extensive entomology, which is to describe fifteen thousand

thousand distinct insects in the author's collection, several hundred birds, many amphibials, and various rare animals of the Russian provinces of Livonia, Erthonia, and Courland. M. Drunpelmänn has all the talents requisite for a naturalist; for to great industry and acuteness of observation, he adds the desideratum of being an excellent designer and painter. The whole of the drawings are his own production, and he assiduously superintends the engraving and colouring of the plates. The text will be Latin, German, and Russian. Independently of this splendid work, we have to announce, from the same country, M. Pallas's *Illustrationes Plantarum imperfecte vel nondum cognitaram, cum Centuria Iconum*,—"Description of Plants unknown, or known but imperfectly, with a hundred Plates." It is sufficient to observe that this work evinces the common accuracy of this excellent scholar and philosopher.

Before we quit this branch of science we must return to Germany, to notice M. Londe's *Verzeichniss der wildwuchsenden Pflanzen*—"Systematic Catalogue of Plants growing spontaneously in the Environs of Göttingen;" apparently selected with much care, and unquestionably described with much accuracy:—the *Samlung der Wurzeln*—"Herbal," published at Salsburg by M. Piers, of which the first number only has hitherto made its appearance, correctly designed from the plants themselves properly prepared and fixed on pasteboard; and the "*Grosbritanien's Conferven*" of M. M. Weber and Mohn, published at Göttingen, and which, as in truth it professes to be, is a literal version of Dillwyn's "*Synopsis of British Confervæ*."

In the department of zoology, M. M. Wolf and Meyn have published at Nuremberg the first nine numbers of their very excellent *Naturgeschichte der Voegel Deutschlands*—"Natural History of German Birds," described and designed from nature. The work when completed will be full and characteristic. To every species is added the German, French, Latin and English synonyms; the genuine and specific criteria follow, including their original country, habits, food, mode of propagation and nidification; their useful or noxious qualities: with occasional anatomical remarks. M. M. Beckstien and Scharfenberg have, in like manner, commenced conjointly a work entitled *Vollständige Naturgeschichte der schädlichen Forstinsekten*—"The Natural History of Insects which are detrimental to Forests." The first volume only is yet printed, at the Leipsic press, and is a quarto of 290 pages, with three plates of engravings. In the continuation of the work is to be given, the history of useful insects which favour the growth of trees by destroying those that are pernicious. We do not much admire the classification, but the descriptions are well drawn up, chiefly from Linnæus and Fabricius. A very splendid history of European Phalænæ is now publishing at Breslaw, under the superintendence of M. Louis de Müller. It is entitled *Abbildungen Europæischen Nächst-Schmetterlinge*. It is published in two editions, a folio and quarto: of the former, not more than forty copies are to be printed; of the latter, not more than sixty. This limitation seems absurd: the work will be terminated in six or seven numbers--the folio copy six rix dollars, the quarto three. A more

useful, though less magnificent publication is presented by M. G. S. Manski, in his *Naturgeschichte der Hausthiere*—"Natural History of domestic Animals." It is an octavo volume, printed at Posen, and is chiefly designed for agriculturists and other rural economists, who will find in it a treasure of valuable information.

We must not omit to mention that in FRANCE, M. M. Humboldt and Bonpland have undertaken an expensive work on "Equinoxial Plants," being chiefly the result of their own actual observations. A fascicle is to be published every fortnight; and the few numbers that have yet reached us are executed with great care. M. P. J. Redoute, painter to the museum of natural history, in his *Liliacées*—"The Liliaceous Tribes," has engaged in a very expensive and magnificent undertaking. This is also highly embellished with coloured prints, and published in separate fascicles, or livraisons. M. J. Saint-Hilaire has presented his countrymen with an agreeable work, but upon a much smaller scale, in his *Plantes de France décrites et peintes d'après Nature*—"The Plants of France described and painted from Nature." His merit is well known from his antecedent labours, and the present will certainly produce no loss of credit to him.

To the agriculturist we cannot but recommend a thin octavo volume lately published at Paris by M. Fanon, "On the Causes of the Decay of Forests, and the easiest and most economical Means of restoring them." The observations here offered are the result of thirty years close attention to the subject discussed.

Upon general agriculture France has this year offered us two distinct

works entitled to notice: the one is M. Poinso's *Ami des Cultivateurs, &c.*—"The Farmer's Friend," in 2 vols. 8vo. containing plain and easy rules for obtaining good crops of every kind; with the requisite information for the management of live-stock, poultry, corn, wine, hay, timber; directions for the treatment of the diseases of cattle, and for superintending bees and silkworms. The other is entitled *Cours complet d'Agriculture théorique, pratique, économique, &c.*—"A complete Course of Agriculture, theoretical and practical, including Rural Economy and the Veterinary Art." This *course* is given in an alphabetical form: it is, moreover, upon a larger scale than the former work, and occupies two volumes in quarto: it is nevertheless inferior in value: it is too diffuse upon trifling subjects, and displays too general an ignorance of late improvements.

Haüy is still, we perceive, taking the lead among the mineralogists of France, and triumphing over Werner. His system, nomenclature, and terminology, have been offered to the public in two new forms in the course of the year before us, and both are worthy of attention. The one is the *Tableau Methodique* of M. J. A. H. Lucas, joint keeper of the galleries of the museum of natural history; which affords, from Haüy's own treatise, a complete series of the characters of minerals, and contains the more recent discoveries. Subjoined is an indication of the geologic position of each species; and an abridged description of the collection of minerals belonging to the museum of natural history. The other work we refer to is M. Deveaux's *Tableau Synoptique*—"Synoptic View of Minerals, arranged according to the Method of Haüy." To the synopsis

nopsis is added a terminology, which is sufficiently clear and comprehensive. The whole is designed to supply the place of the methodic table of the late venerable Daubenton, which, from the numerous discoveries that have been recently made in this science, has for many years become obsolete. We will here add, that M. Graffenauer has published at Strasburg a "Treatise on the practical or economic Mineralogy of Alsace"—*Essaie d'une Minéralogie Alsacienne économique des Departmens du Haut et du Bas Rhin*; which the surveyor of mines may peruse with much benefit: the work is to be continued. M. Doulcet has also performed an acceptable service to the science by the publication of his *Dictionnaire Oryctographique*; it is a portable octavo, and gives the general analyses and specific gravities with sufficient accuracy for common information.

In chemistry and experimental philosophy we can only find time to mention, that M. J. Baader, chief hydraulic engineer to his Bavarian majesty, has published his "Projet d'une nouvelle Machine hydraulique," with explanatory plates, in conformity with the wish expressed by the National Institute, whose committee appointed to investigate it were highly pleased with the invention. Its object is to simplify the present means of supplying the town and gardens of Versailles with water. Lest we should elsewhere forget it, we will here add, that the very excellent work of Wiebeking on hydraulic architecture (*Wasserbaukunst*), is still continued with its accustomed spirit, and that the fourth volume is now completed.

SPAIN is much indebted to the liberality of his Catholic majesty,

who has had printed, at his own expense, a very useful *Curro di Quimica general aplicada a las Artes*—"General Course of Chemistry as applicable to the Arts," drawn up for this purpose by Don Joseph Maria de S. Cristobal, and Don Jos. Gariga y Buaca. It occupies two volumes octavo; and is accompanied with a variety of well-executed and explanatory plates. M. Michelotti, late mathematical professor in the university of Turin, has also published his *Saggio Idrografico del Piemonte*—"Essay on the Hydrography of Piedmont;" a work of much value in hydrostatics. It is dedicated to the prince-regent of Portugal: and his royal highness has been so much pleased with it as to command a translation of it into PORTUGUESE, which has accordingly been effected by father Francesco Furtado de Mendonça, under the title of *Ensayo Hydrographico del Piedmonte*. We also perceive that the mathematical and philosophical works (*Obras*, &c.) of M. Francis de Borja Stockler, are now printing progressively at the Lisbon press. We have received only the first volume: it consists of six eulogies; a discourse addressed to the president of the royal society; a memoir on the originality of the maritime discoveries of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century, which we recommend to the perusal of our own excellent and enlightened countryman captain Burney; and a mathematical paper addressed to M. Falkel.

On the subject of geography we have to notice Muller's "*Neueste Allgemeine Geographic der Gegenwärtigen Zeit*," of which the first volume only has yet appeared; and which seems to fulfil the author's professed object, of containing the latest changes:—a great multitude

of chorographic and topographic publications from different German presses: Mascheroni's "*Geometria del Compasso*," ably translated from the Italian into French by M. Charette. M. Romme's "*Tableau des Vents, des Marées et des Courans*," accompanied with important reflections on these phenomena, many of which minutely coincide with M. Capper's antecedent observations: and M. Puissant's, "*Traité de Géodésie*;" or Explanation of the trigonometrical and astronomical methods which have been applied to the measurement of the earth—with explanatory plates and tables.

The science of astronomy has presented us, among other valuable works, with Dr. Shroeter's "*Lilienthalische Beobachtungen der neu-entdeckten Planeten*—" Observations made at Lilienthal on the newly discovered Planets Ceres, Pallas, and Juno," with a view to the accurate determination of their real magnitudes, their atmospheres, and other remarkable physical relations in the solar system: various systems of astronomy by Maier, Gelpke, and Buria: Biot's "*Traité élémentaire d'Astronomie physique*," in 2 volumes 8vo.; and M. Legendre's "*New Method of determining the Orbits of Comets*," in one vol. 8vo.

M. A. M. Legendre has published a very excellent geometrical treatise on land-surveying; and M. M. Mechain and Delambre have just given to the public the first volume of their most useful labours and scientific operations to determine the best mode of carrying into effect an uniformity of weights and measures. It is a work which ought to be in the hands of every statist and legislator, and has obtained an advantage for France which we should like to see partaken of by our

own countrymen. It is printed in a quarto form, and entitled "*Base du Système Métrique Décimal; ou Mesure de l'Arc du Méridien entre les Paralleles de Dunkerque et Barcelone*."

On the subject of military sciences and the art of war we shall notice, that a variety of magazines and repositories (*Archiv*), have of late appeared in Germany, containing an account of whatever is novel or worthy of record in these too popular pursuits, and inspiring the inhabitants with a love of them. A posthumous work of the celebrated Cormontaigne, marechal de camp, who ranks in the line of engineering immediately next to Vauban, has been published at Paris, entitled, "*Mémorial pour la Defense de Places*:" it is intended as a companion to the same author's well-known "*Mémorial pour l'Attaque*;" and is possessed of equal merit. At Stockholm, major Sturtzenbechen, who has lately commenced, under the title of *Ingenieur Lexicon*, a very useful dictionary of surveying, has also published a course of "*Lectures on Fortification*," in 3 vols. 8vo. with plates. Major Gripenburg has given a treatise "*On the Manner of drawing Military Maps, and distinguishing the Objects with Precision*:" and sir E. H. Chapman, vice-admiral of the Swedish navy, in a very splendid quarto volume, enriched with forty folio plates, and dedicated to his Swedish majesty, has published at Carlskrona, under the title of *Försök till en Theoretisk afbandlung*, &c.: a very important essay towards a new theory on the subject of giving to line-of-battle ships their proper form and dimensions; with observations on frigates and other armed vessels.

CHAPTER III.

MORAL AND POLITICAL:

Giving a Glance at the principal Productions of Germany, France, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Italy, Portugal, America.

THE limits to which we are confined will not suffer us to do full justice to the extensive department upon which we are now entering. We have already exceeded our bounds, and shall be able to do little more than offer a catalogue of the works of most value upon the various topics it embraces, as they have fallen into our hands, and add such occasional observations as they may seem imperatively to demand.

The chief historical productions that have reached us from Germany are, professor Eichhorn's *Geschichte der drey letzten Jabrbunderte*—"History of the last three Centuries," 6 vols. octavo: M. Planch's *Geschichte des Papstthums*—"History of the Papacy in the Western Churches from the Middle of the seventh Century:" M. Schröck's *Christliche Kirchengeschichte*—"History of the Christian Church since the Reformation," of which two volumes have been antecedently published: *Die Entdeckungen des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts*—"The Discoveries of the nineteenth Century as far as relates to Geography and a Knowledge of different Nations," by M. T. Hoepfner, of Erford; the third volume of Posselt's *Geschichte der Deutschen*—"History of the Germans;" and the third volume of Rüh's *Geschichte Schwedens*—"History of Sweden." With the voluminous history of M. Eichhorn, we have upon the whole been well satisfied: as an historian, however, he is a far more timid writer

than as a theologian; he does not dare to question the conduct of Bonaparte, as he has dared to question the authenticity of the pentateuch, and even at times, as it should seem, the conduct of the Deity himself. Yet we are aware that the present state of the continent will not allow a man of independent spirit—and such we know is the professor—to express all the feelings he would wish to do. Upon every other point the historian writes with sufficient energy and fearlessness: he has spared no pains in his search after authorities, and whoever reads him may rely upon him. In M. Planck's Papal History we perceive nothing of prominent merit or defect. Hoepfner's work is altogether a compilation, but, upon the whole, from writers of credit; Bergman has furnished him with his account of the Calmucks, and Percival with his history of Ceylon.

In France the historic production of by far the most consequence, on a variety of accounts, is the posthumous works of Louis XIV. which already extend to six octavo volumes, and may perhaps, in a short time, reach double the number. It was not till of late known that this extraordinary prince was a writer of any kind; but admitting the genuineness of the works in question, it now appears that he was not only a writer, but one of the most brilliant and polished writers, as well as one of the most accurate and profound reasoners of his age. It seems that

there have been lately discovered in the National Library three bound volumes in folio, independently of three large portfolios, which were deposited there in Dec. 1749, by the marquis de Noailles, with a certificate in the marquis's own handwriting, that the whole were the property and production of Louis XIV., and were saved from the flames to which a great portion of other papers were committed, at the urgent request of this nobleman, who had been ordered by Louis to bring the whole to him for this express purpose. The bound volumes contain both the originals and copies taken of them by order of M. de Noailles himself. They are now, generally, admitted to be genuine, and are published by different editors in a variety of forms. M. de Gain-Montagnac, under the title of "Mémoires de Louis XIV.," has presented to the public, in one volume octavo, the first part of an entire series which is designed to include all the papers discovered: this volume contains memoirs composed for, and addressed to, the dauphin, the royal author's son; succeeded by several fragments of military memoirs, instructions given to Philip V., and seventeen letters addressed to that monarch on the government of his states. M. M. Grouvelle and Gen. Grimoard have conjointly engaged in publishing another edition, which is more fully entitled "*Œuvres de Louis XIV.*" and is divided into the classes of historical, political, and military memoirs, letters, and miscellaneous pieces. The political and military memoirs have been edited under the especial care and superintendence of general Grimoard; the rest have received their revisal from M. Grouvelle. The whole are elucidated by fac-similes of the royal

author's hand-writing, prefatory compositions, comments, and notes. They add very considerably to the credit of this monarch's character, and are a very important accession to the political history of his age. We shall not at present offer another remark, under the full persuasion that we shall be again called to a survey of them, in the lucubrations of our next Retrospect, in the form of an English version.

The chief historical works which France has furnished us with, independently of this of Louis XIV. are, *Histoire des Evenemens*, &c.—"History of the Events which took place in France during the Months of June, July, August, and September, and which produced the Fall of the Royal Throne," by M. Maton-de-la-Varenne. The writer's name is well known—and he has here advanced various documents which have not hitherto been placed before the public, among which are two original letters of Louis XVI. of some interest and importance. *Histoire de l'Occupation de la Bavière*, &c.—"History of the Occupation of Bavaria, and of the Negotiations which preceded the Peace of Teschen, by M. François de Neufchateau, Senator and Member of the National Institute." The work is full and explicit, and the literary reputation of the author stamps upon it a sufficiency of authority. *Revolutions d'Allemagne*—"*Revolutions of Germany*:" but not the *present* revolutions, for Germany has submitted to many, yet to none so destructive of the general happiness and independence of Europe, as those of our own time: the work before us is merely a translation of Denina's *Revoluzione della Germania*: it is ably executed, and extends to six volumes octavo. *Histoire de France*, &c.—"History of France from

from the Time of the Gauls to the Fall of the Monarchy : by M. Anquetil," the earlier volumes of which we have formerly noticed, and which is now brought down from vol. x. to vol. xv. inclusive, so as to complete the undertaking, and reflect additional lustre upon the very comprehensive talents of the author. And lastly, *Histoire de Guerres des Gaulois, &c.*—"History of the Wars of the Gauls and French in Italy ; with a View of the Civil and Military Events which accompanied them, and of their Influence on the Civilization and Improvement of Mankind, from Bellocesus to the Death of Louis XII., by M. Auguste Jubé, Member of the Tribunate ; and from the Death of Louis XII. to the Treaty of Amiens ; by M. Joseph Servan, General of Division ; with a Portrait of the Emperor Napoleon by Isabey and Tardieu ; an Atlas of twelve Folio Maps, by M. Lapie, Geographical Engineer ; and two Views, by M. Le Jeune ; 7 vols. 8vo. Paris." With the exception of that preponderance of mind in favour of the new dynasty which it is natural to expect in the writings of one of Bonaparte's own officers, this is one of the best general histories of France which has ever yet been offered to the world. Gen. Servan is an able successor to the labours of M. Jubé ; he is intimately acquainted with his subject, and has accurately disposed and arranged it.

M. Eyler Hagerux, of Vördalen in NORWAY, has published a "History of St. Olave, King of Norway," a work replete with paleographic information, and peculiarly interesting to the early history of our own country, from the close connection that subsisted between itself and the north of Europe to-

wards the close of the first chyliad of the christian æra : and M. Holbech, of Copenhagen, is engaged in a long detailed history of the Stuart dynasty. His chief object is to give a comprehensive biography of the late cardinal York, with whom this dynasty has become completely extinct : introductory to which he has already published his "Historical View of the Reigns and Fortunes of the Stuarts." The work is upon the whole impartial : in the midst of many hereditary virtues possessed by this family, he admits that there was a large preponderance of criminality and weakness ; and a preponderance that rendered it impossible for them to escape the ruin which befel them.

SWEDEN has found an able and accomplished historian as well as critic in M. Hallenberg, royal librarian, and national historiographer. Among biblical scholars he is already known and esteemed for his translation of the Apocalypse, with a large body of critical notes : he has since been engaged in an "Universal History," of which the third volume has lately made its appearance ; and he has just completed, in five volumes octavo, "The History of Sweden during the Reign of Augustus Adolphus the Great."—There is a smaller work upon a more extensive scale just published, by M. Silverstolpe, that is by no means deficient in merit, and will ably answer the purpose it professes, we mean that of being "A Compendium of the History of Sweden."

That we may not have to return to Stockholm in the course of the present chapter, we shall notice the following works, which equally appertain to it : *Resa igenom en del af England och Skottland*—"Travels through Parts of England and Scotland,"

land, in the years 1802, 1803 : by Eric. Th. Svedenstjerna." M. Svedenstjerna is a pupil of Vauquelin ; he was placed under his care at the expense of a society of iron-workers at Stockholm, and by them franked in the course of his present travels, which were chiefly indeed for their benefit, and hence partake much of a mineralogical character. Liberality was never better bestowed ;---our traveller, who was well recommended to our own country, is always observant, always active, always in good humour : he has thrown a great portion of interest into every page, and will be found to have given to many of our countrymen a new insight into their native land. We cordially recommend these volumes to be translated. They are well worthy of being naturalized amongst us, and will abundantly repay the trouble of writing.

"*Nagra Korta underrättelser om Fayal och de öfrige Açorerne.*" These excursions of M. Hebbe over Fayal, one of the Azore islands, is not confined to Fayal alone ; for it gives a detailed account of the whole clustre of the Azores, and may be perused with considerable instruction. M. Ruders, in his *Portugisisk Resa*, &c.—"Travels through Portugal," has also well described the interior of that kingdom ; and we perceive, in an abridged form, a Swedish translation of Mr. Barrow's Travels in Southern Africa, from the pen of M. P. Olof Gravander, of the university of Upsal.

In RUSSIA, general Alexander Palizyn has translated sir George Staunton's account of lord Macartney's Embassy to China, into his native language : it is magnificently printed, and illustrated by a variety of engravings. M. Von Reimers, in his work entitled *Reise der*

Russischkaiserlichen Gesandtschaft, &c.---"Journal of the Imperial Russian Embassy to the Ottoman Porte, performed in the year 1793," has added considerably to our knowledge of the intervening country, we mean Wallachia, Bulgaria, and Romelia, and not a little to that of the Turks themselves. M. Von Reimers was one of the secretaries to the embassy which was fitted out by Catharine II. in 1793 ; his work extends to three quarto volumes ; in the first he describes his route to Constantinople, in the second offers observations on this city and its environs, and in the third gives an interesting account of the Chersonesus Taurica, through which, by particular permission of the Russian ambassador, he passed in his return home. These volumes, if curtailed of their redundancies, might also be naturalized with ample profit.

Bergmann's Nomadische Streifereyen unter den Kalmücken---"Bergman's Nomadic Excursions among the Calmucks in the years 1802, 1803. Riga. 2 vols. 8vo." A highly entertaining, and apparently a faithful and accurate history of these Russian Asiatics.

Before we finally take leave of this immense empire, we will notice that M. Von. Murr, of Nuremberg, has sent to his imperial majesty three manuscripts of the great mathematician Joannes Regiomontanus, together with some rare printed works of the same author. They have been placed in the imperial library, and Mr. Murr has been honoured in return with a present of a superb brilliant ring. We will notice also, that a new periodical journal has been commenced at Petersburg, under the superintendence of M. Martignon, the translator of Longinus, intended for general scientific

fic information, under the title of "*Notices of the North*;" and that another entitled "*The Friend of Information; or Journal of the Arts and Sciences*," has been just essayed at Moscow, edited by M. Kutusow of the university of that city.

In ITALY the abbate Francesco Fontani, librarian of the Riccardine library, in his *Viaggio pittorico della Toscana*—"Picturesque Tourthrough Tuscany," has produced a work that may be perused with pleasure by every class of readers. It is, however, too extensive for general perusal, as comprising three volumes folio: it is equally literary, historic, and descriptive; the style is agreeable and unaffected, and the taste and judgment evinced are highly cultivated and mature. *Considerazioni sopra la Storia di Sicilia, dai tempi Normani sino ai Presenti*—"Reflections on the History of Sicily, from the Times of the Normans to the present Period." This is a production of the canon Rosario, and is printed at Palermo: the work however is not yet complete, the first two volumes only having hitherto appeared; the size, octavo. We shall return to it when finished. We have, from this quarter, to announce that M. Sestini, who is well known as a profound medallist, and who has already published several excellent works on this science, intends adding another volume, making the ninth, to his *Lettere e Dissertazioni Numismatiche*, which will contain the Grecian coins and medals of the cabinet of Gotha; and that he has just commenced a complete System of Geographical Numismatics, which is to extend to *twelve volumes folio*. It will contain a description of the most interesting coins and medals of antiquity, public and private, in Europe.

In PORTUGAL, and printed and

engraved at Lisbon, we meet with a most splendid and magnificent work, of an extent we are ignorant of at present, which is designed, as expressed by its title, to give "*Portraits and Busts of the most eminent and illustrious Men and Women that have adorned the Portuguese Nation, whether celebrated for their Virtues or their Literature, for Arts or Arms, whether Natives or Foreigners, whether of ancient or modern Date; to be accompanied with biographical Sketches, deduced from History and ancient Monuments*" --- *Retratos e Bustos dos Varo's, e Donas, que illustraram a nação Portuguesa em Virtudes, Letras, e Artes, assim Nacionaes, como Estranhos, &c.* This immense undertaking is projected, as it need to be, *por uma Sociedade Philopatrica* (by a philopatric society): its size is quarto, and the two first numbers, containing eight portraits, with their respective lives, were completed last August.

The chief productions that have reached us from the American states appertaining to the present chapter are the following: "*Description of the Genessee Country*;" by Mr. R. Munro, of New York—a description at once geographic, statistic, oryctologic, and commercial. "*American Annals; or a Chronological History of America, from its discovery in 1492 to 1806*, 2vols. 8vo. by Abiel Holmes, D.D." printed at Cambridge, New England. This is a work of much merit:—it contains much original matter, and that which is not new is for the most part drawn from unquestionable, often from original authorities. Recourse has frequently been had to Robertson: but there is abundant proof that the Spanish writers themselves have been sedulously consulted in their own pages.

"Message

“Message from the President of the United States, communicating Discoveries made in exploring the Missouri, Red River, and Washita, by Captains Lewis and Clarke, Doctor Sibley, and Mr. Dunbar; with a Statistical Account of the Countries adjacent—Feb. 19, 1806: read and ordered to lie on the table.” This authentic communication is printed at Washington. The research was ordered by the American government, in consequence of its acquisition of Louisiana from the French and Spaniards: and the papers here printed conjointly compose the first Anglo-American survey of this quarter of the New World. “Papers on Agriculture: consisting of Communications made to the Massachusetts Society for promoting Agriculture.” This is a thin octavo volume, published at Boston by order of the trustees: nearly half of it consists of reprints from English agricultural writers: and the rest possesses no peculiar merit. The following are the chief forensic publications: “A Selection of Pleadings in Civil Actions subsequent to the Declaration, with occasional Annotations on the Law of Pleading; by Jos. Story. Salem. 8vo.” This work unites the law of England as uniformly appealed to in the American courts, with such variations as are necessarily produced by a variation in their own statutes. To the American lawyer it must be a useful directory. A new edition of Blackstone’s Commentaries, by Mr. G. Tucker, of Boston; accompanied with Notes and References to the Constitution and Laws of the federal Government of the United States, and of the Commonwealth of Virginia. “An Abstract of those Laws of the United States which relate chiefly to the Duty and Authority of Judges of inferior

State-Courts and Justices of Peace throughout the Union;” the production of Samuel Bayard, Esq.: we believe, the same gentleman who was secretary to the American embassy to this country about eight years ago. “Reports of Cases argued and adjudged in the Supreme Court of the United States, in Aug. and Dec. Terms, 1801, and Feb. 1803.” These reports comprise the first volume of a work which it is intended to continue: the editor is W. Cranch, esq. assistant judge of the circuit-court of the district of Columbia. Judicial opinions and decisions have hitherto been seldom recorded in America as they ought to have been: and the example here set by Mr. Cranch will, we trust, be printed and followed as it deserves to be.

We must once more cross the Atlantic; as we have not yet finished the moral and political literature of France and Germany.

The former, during the period before us, has been rich in biographies; of these the chief are, Notice Biographique sur M. Salivet---“Biographic Notice relative to M. Salivet, Professor at the Academy of Legislation; by Charles Dumont.” Notice Historique sur la Vie et les Ouvrages de Pierre Julien---“Historic Notice relative to the Life and Writings of Peter Julien; by M. Joachim Le Breton, perpetual Secretary to the Class of Polite Arts in the National Institute.” Mémoires Historiques, Politiques, et Militaires, &c.---“Historic, Political, and Military Memoirs of the Count de Hordt; a Native of Sweden, and a Lieutenant-General in the Prussian Army; dictated by M. Borelly, Member of various Academies.” This last work we have already noticed at large in its English dress. Mémoires d’un Voyageur,

ageur, &c.---“Memoirs of a Traveller now in Retirement; containing historic, political, and literary Anecdotes relative to several of the principal Personages of the Age.” The traveller here referred to is M. Dutens: this work has also been rendered into our own tongue, and noticed by us accordingly. *Memoires et Lettres*, &c.---“Memoirs and Letters of the Marshal De Jessé, containing Anecdotes of Facts never before published, relating to the Reigns of Louis XIV. and Louis XV.,” 2 vols. 8vo. An anonymous publication—and in some degree questionable, though the editor affirms that the originals, or *authentic copies* of the papers here referred to, can be produced. *Lettres inédites de Mirabeau*, &c.---“Unpublished Letters of Mirabeau;” the whole forming a continuation of the letters written from the dungeon of Vincennes from 1777 to 1780 inclusively. Edited by J. F. Vitry, formerly of the Office of Foreign Affairs. *Notice de la Vie et des Ecrits de George Louis Le Sage*---“Sketch of the Life and Writings of George Louis Le Sage, of Geneva, Member of the Academy and Institute of Bologna, &c. digested from his Notes by M. Prevost.” *Histoire Littéraire de l'Abbé Morelli*---“The Literary History of Abbate Morelli.” This is a mere translation from the original Italian. *Gallerie Historique des Illustres Germains*---“Historic Gallery of Illustrious Germans, from the Days of Arminius to our own Times, with their respective Portraits, and Engravings taken from some remarkable Occurrence in their Lives.” An abridged translation of the chevalier Klein's “German Biography,” in five folio volumes. *Galerie Historique des Hommes les plus celebres*---His-

toric Gallery of the most celebrated Men of all Ages and Countries, containing their Portraits, Sketches of their Lives, and Remarks on their Characters and Works: by a Society of Men of Letters.” This publication is intended to comprise twelve volumes duodecimo; and each volume to contain seventy-two portraits.

The chief travels, voyages, and tours are as follow: *Voyage en Italie et en Sicilie, fait en 1801 et 1802*---“Travels in Italy and Sicily in the Years 1801 and 1802, by M. Arenze de Lesser, Member of the Legislative Body.” This will not do either for an Italian or an English version; the author says, “I have seen nothing worse than the women of these states (Parma, Placentia, and Rome), except perhaps the five hundred English women, who after the peace of Amiens flocked with such confidence to France to exhibit their persons, or, what is still more ridiculous, their fashions to the admiration of the Parisians.” *Voyage en Moree, &c.*---“Travels in the Morea, to Constantinople in Albania, and many other Parts of the Ottoman Empire, in the Years 1798—1801: by F. C. H. L. Pouqueville, M. D. Member of the Commission of Sciences and Arts of Egypt.” The result of having been taken prisoner during the war between France and the Ottoman Porte, carried to Constantinople, and afterwards set at liberty, to return home as he could. This work is worth naturalizing. *Voyage à la Partie Orientale de la Terre-Firme, dans l'Amerique Meridionale, fait pendant les Années 1801—1804*---“Travels in the Eastern Part of Terra-Firma, in South America, in the Years 1801—1804: by F. Dupons, Ex-agent of

of the French Government, at Caracas, 3 vols. 8vo. Paris." A valuable work—replete with observation and sound judgement. Independently of these, we notice that Pallas's Travels in the Southern Governments of the Russian Empire, in 1793 and 1794, have been translated into French from the German, by M. M. De la Bonlaye, M. D. and Tonnelier, member of the Societies of Natural History and Philomacy, 2 vols. 4to: and Dr. Moore's Travels in France, Switzerland, and Germany (from the English), by an anonymous female pen, occupying 2 vols. 8vo.

We shall next give a glance at the chief publications in the branches of diplomacy, statistics, civil and municipal law. De la Ligue Hanséatique, &c.—"Of the Hanseatic League, its Origin, Progress, Power, and Political Constitution, to the Period of its Declension in the Sixteenth Century: by P. H. Mallet, late Professor of History, and Member of several Academies." A correct and instructive dissertation, evincing an enlightened head and a liberal heart. De la Prépondérance Maritime, &c.—"On the Maritime and Commercial Prépondérance of England, or the Interests of other Nations relative to England and France: by M. Montbrion." A philippic against the present commercial aggrandizement of Great Britain, and in favour of an universal coalition against her. *Nous verrons.* Recherches sur la Force de l'Armée Française, &c.—"Researches on the Strength of the French Army, the Basis on which it should be established according to Circumstances, and a List of the Secretaries of State or Ministers of War, from Henry IV. to the Year 1805." The first vo-

lume only of a work which is to trace the first campaigns of the revolution. We shall, therefore, have an opportunity of returning to it hereafter. Tableaux Comparatifs des Dépenses, &c.—"Comparative Statements of the Expenses and Revenues of France and England, by M. Sabatier." An answer, but an inefficient one, to the calculations and reasoning of M. Gentz. Recherches sur la Législation Criminelle, &c.—"Inquiries relative to the State of Criminal Legislation during the Epoch of the Dauphins, according to Thomassin, Valbonnais, Chorier, &c., by M. Berriat (St. Prix) of Grenoble." This work discovers much unwearied research, and a liberal spirit. Code et Nouvelles de Justinien: Nouvelles de l'Empereur Leon, &c.—"Code and Additaments of Justinian; Additaments of the Emperor Leo; Fragments of Caius Ulpinus and of Paul: by P. A. Tissot, Jurisconsult, and Member of several learned Societies." Useful for students in civil law, and capable of supplying, as it is designed to do, the deficiencies in the editions of Ferrière and Huld. Dictionnaire du Code Civil, &c.—"Dictionary of the Civil Code: by A. G. Daubenton, Ex-judge." The Jacob's Law Dictionary of Modern France.

The principal travels and voyages that have issued from the different German presses are as follow: Meine Reise über den Gotthard, &c.—"My Journey across Mount Gothard to the Borromæan Islands and Milan; and thence back across the Val Formazza, the Grimsel, and the Upperland, performed in the Summer of 1801, 2 vols. 8vo." An entertaining and interesting tour: in the course of which we learn that

that the patriotic story of William Tell has no foundation in real history, or at least not in the manner in which it is commonly related; as we do also that the hospitable convent on Mount St. Gothard has fallen into a heap of ruins beneath the remorseless warfare of the present times. *Briefe auf einer Reise von Lothringen, &c.*—"Letters written during a Journey from Lorraine to Lower Saxony." *Reise nach Hyeres*—"Journey to Heyeres in the Spring of 1804: by M. Fischer." *Reise in die Klassische Gegenden Rome*—"Journey to the Classical Country of Rome;" by M. Bonstetten. In none of these, however, do we perceive any peculiarity of merit, or singularity of anecdote or description. M. M. Gunther and Bruckner have added the last volume to their "*Picturesque Tour through Saxony*;" and the *Briefe eines Reisenden Franzosen, &c.*—"Letters of a Frenchman during his Travels in Germany," have reached a new edition. To which we may add, that under the title of *Spiele und Belustigung der Russen*: "*Sports and Pastimes of the Russians*," M. M. Geisler and Richter have produced a very splendid and characteristic work upon the subject in question. It is printed in folio on vellum paper, and embellished with twelve coloured plates: the letterpress is both in German and French.

In the class of statistics and diplomacy, the *Geist der Zeit*—"Spirit of the Times," by M. Ernest Moritz Arndt, is an excellent work, and entitled to much praise, especially by Englishmen. M. Arndt is a comprehensive observer; and though the late reverses on the continent have abruptly falsified some of his spe-

culations, the generality of his remarks are pregnant with political truth. He apostrophises our own country with much spirit:—believes us to be on the decline; not from the victories of Bonaparte however, for all his triumphs can never in his judgement seriously injure us, but from our own internal misconduct: yet the day that England is ruined, will, in his opinion, be a fatal day to the rest of the world. *Authentische Darstellung, &c.*—"Authentic Statement of the Relations between England and Spain before and at the Rupture between those two Powers: by Frederic de Gentz." M. Gentz has already proved himself an able advocate on the part of Great Britain, and he is still as warmly attached to the same side as if he had been feed by a special retainer. *Statistischer Umriss der Sämtlichen, &c.*—"Statistic View of all the European States considered with respect to their Extent, Population, Productions, Commerce, Finances, Military, Constitution and Colonies or Possessions in other Parts of the World: by G. Hassel. Brunswick." This is to be a very extensive work, if it still seem good to the author to continue it; for which, however, he appears to possess sufficient ability, should the new politics of *Brunswick* allow him to persevere. The size of the work is folio: and the first two numbers of the first volume are all that have yet reached us. "*America nach seiner ehemaligen und jetzigen Verfassung*—"America considered in her Former and Present State: by F. J. Kretschmer, 3 vols." An excellent and indefatigable statistic compilation. *Anfangsgründe des Philosophischen Criminal Rechts*—"Phi-

“Philosophical Elements of Criminal Jurisprudence. With an Appendix on the Art of Juridical Defence: by C. S. Zacharia, Professor at the University of Wittemberg.” Punishments are never to be inflicted by way of example to others; but merely in regard to the degree of criminality in the offender: they ought to be restricted to a confinement of the person, or to infringements upon personal liberty, and never to affect limb, life, or property. Such are the doctrines here chiefly supported. Ueber den Einfluss des Handels und der Handels, &c.—“On the Influence of Commerce

and Commercial Systems upon National Prosperity: by G. F. Kiemeyer.” A work well entitled to the attention of political economists. Wahr heit ohne Schminke, &c.—“Truth without Disguise; or a Dissertation on a free Corn-Trade.” A truly rational and public-spirited performance; in which the author points out the absurdity of all government restraints, and the inefficiency of all government magazines; and establishes that the utmost liberty of action is necessary to obtain grain in abundance, and at a moderate rate.

CHAPTER IV.

LITERATURE AND POLITE ARTS:

Being the Productions of France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Hungary, Turkey, Modern Greece, American States.

WE shall commence, as usual, with the different scientific and literary societies of Europe.

The National Institute, which, in our last Retrospect, we noticed as giving evident proofs of a decline, is now more than ever in danger of actual and speedy dissolution. It commenced, as our readers well know, with a division into the three grand classes of Moral and Political, Physical and Mathematical, and one for Literature and Polite Arts: each of which was to furnish a volume of Memoirs annually. At the beginning of 1804, however, it was discovered by the *imperial patron* of the Institution that it was in-

expedient to agitate general questions of Moral and Political Sciences—or, in other words, that a degree of liberty had been indulged by many of the memoirists of this department, in their respective speculations, that was incompatible with his view of good order and civil authority: to draw a line of distinction, and mark out the extreme point to which writers of this description might advance, without overstepping it, was invidious and difficult, and perhaps impossible: the Gordian knot, therefore, was cut instead of being untied, by the second as well as by the first Alexander; and, as though by magic spell, the entire department

department of Moral and Political Sciences, in a moment ceased to exist, and was instantaneously merged into the two remaining classes. The change seems to have torpedied the Institution—and to have deprived its members of almost the whole of their activity. And hence, though the public have from the above period had a right to expect only *two* volumes annually instead of three, even this it is found impossible to comply with. The class of Literature and Polite Arts not being prepared, the class of Physics and Mathematics has been obliged to publish its annual volume alone; which constitutes the sixth in the regular series, leaving its associate class to overtake it, as it may be able. Even in this volume we perceive, or think we perceive, less general excellence than in the preceding from the same class. It contains two biographic sketches or *notices* as it is now the fashion to denominate them: one of which is an Elogy on Dr. Priestley, from the eloquent pen of M. Cuvier. It is by far the best, and the most impartial life of him that has hitherto appeared, notwithstanding its deterioration by a few trivial mistakes into which the biographer has fallen: he pays due compliment to Dr. Priestley's philosophical discoveries, and sufficiently reprobates the spirit of vanity and innovation so conspicuous in his theological controversies and opinions. The best memoirs we have noticed are two or three on chemical and economical subjects, by M. M. Vauquelin and Fourcroy—a mathematical paper by M. Le Gendre, and an article on natural history by M. Lacépède.

As some atonement for the un-

expected curtailment that has been made in the quantity of *select* matter hitherto usually published by the National Institution, we have to notice that the establishment has now commenced a work which is to give to the public a punctual series of memoirs, that have been presented to it, but have not or could not be published in the regular body of the Institute's own memoirs, as having been presented by foreigners, philosophers who were not members of it. Of this new work we have received the first volume, entitled "*Mémoires présentés à l'Institut National.*" Into this volume we cannot enter: it contains many valuable papers on most departments of science, *except that of morals and politics*. Its size is quarto.

The Academy for Useful Sciences at Erfort has published its volume of Memoirs for the preceding year (1805): the chief articles in which are, "On the *Gymnotus electricus*, by M. Humboldt. On the Oxyd of Antimony, by M. Bucholz. On the Existence of Azot in the Acetic Acid, by M. Trumsdorf. On several species of *Veronica*, by M. Bernardi. On several Species of *Fungus*, by M. Haberle. A *Latin* Society has lately been established at Jena, and the result of its labours are now before us in its first volume, entitled "*Nova Acta Societatis Latinæ Jenensis.*" Its attention is entirely directed to classical literature: of course the papers are in the Latin tongue, except occasional translations; yet there is one exception, in an article "On the Hecate of the Greeks," from the pen of professor Voss, the admirable translator of Homer and Virgil, who has preferred his own German.

Francisci a Mesguien Meninski
Lexicon

Lexicon Arabico-Persico-Turcicum—"Meninski's Arabic, Persian, and Turkish Dictionary: four volumes, imperial folio." This was a truly imperial work, well worthy of the princely patronage it has received, and which we rejoice to say is at length completed. It is five and twenty years since this vast and invaluable work commenced: Maria Theresa first fostered it, and successively the emperors Joseph, Leopold, and Francis II. The contributors have been very numerous, and have changed far more frequently than the imperial patrons; the superintendants however have been but three, Von Jenisch, Von Kletzl, and Höh; and hence a greater uniformity and harmony of style and manner are preserved than we have even a right to expect. The first volume appeared in 1780, the second in 1786, the third in 1792; the fourth and last has been published about a twelvemonth.

Professor Schneider has met with sufficient encouragement to give a new edition of his very valuable *Kritisches Griechisch-Deutsches Wörterbuch*—"Critical Greek and German Dictionary;" which now appears in a very improved state in two volumes quarto. Why have we no dictionary upon a similar plan (Greek and English) in our own country.

Der Man, &c. "Man: an anthropological Sketch of the Character of his Sex; by C. F. Pochels, Aulic Counsellor to the Duke of Brunswick Lunenburg." This work is designed to point out the moral distinctions between the sexes in regard to corporeal, mental, and intellectual powers; but is possessed of no prominent merit.

Winkelman und sein Jahrhun-

dert—"Winkelman and his Century. In Letters and Treatises edited by Baron Goethe." The history of Winkelman must necessarily be the history of arts and sciences, and literary and scientific men contemporary with him. Such is the nature of the work before us—highly amusing and instructive, as every thing from Baron Goethe must be, but somewhat overcharged with personal panegyric.

Beyträge zur Geschichte der Erfindungen, &c.—"Contributions to the History of Inventions and Discoveries: by John Beckmann." This excellent series of antiquarian researches has now reached the fifth volume; and is still to be continued. As the first volume has already been translated into English, we shall have an opportunity of returning to it and explaining its nature more fully in a short time.

Grundzüge des gegenwärtigen Zeitalters—"The Principal Features of the Present Age: by J. G. Fichte." A new attempt to revive the doctrine of Spinozism in regard to its ideology. The confused and inexplicit style of the author, however, if there were no other impediment, will be a very sufficient bar to his success.

A complete collection of Herder's works is now publishing—the whole extent of which we are not acquainted with, as it is produced by single volumes progressively: the first six are already printed. His *Ansichten des Klassischen Alterthums*—"Views of Classical Antiquity," are also republishing in a separate form, under the superintendence of M. Daus. An excellent edition of *Æschylus* has been presented to the public by M. F. H.

M. F. H. Bothe of Magdeburg, printed at Leipsic. The size octavo, the type very neat, paper good—that for the finer copies very handsome. It comprises, successively, the Greek life of the poet; the *δραματων καταλογος*; tragedies, with a Latin version at the bottom of the page; fragments, also translated; short notes to both tragedies and fragments, a *conspectus metricus*, and a short *index rerum*.

Proceeding from the French press we have to notice, in the department before us, the following as its chief productions: *Œuvres Politiques, Littéraires, et Dramatiques de Gustave III., Roi de Suède, suivies de sa Correspondance*—"The Political, Literary, and Dramatic Works of Gustavus III., King of Sweden, to which is added his Correspondence, with a Portrait of his Majesty, 4 vols. 8vo. Paris." Gustavus III. was the Julius Cæsar of Sweden, and is so denominated in the motto here subjoined to his portrait:—as a ruler, as a writer, in his life and his death, he bore a considerable resemblance to the ambitious Roman. His literary productions deserve publication in a collected form: and the present edition does credit to the editor. The whole, however, is not yet completed; three or four additional volumes remaining still to be added. *Œuvres Choisies et Posthumes, &c.*—"Select and Posthumous Works of M. De la Harpe of the French Academy: with a portrait of the author, 4 vols. 8vo. Paris." There is as much violence and bigotry in the latter part of these writings as in the former: La Harpe was always a zealot—at first in philosophism—and, after his conversion, in catholic mysticism. But he was a

man of letters, of cultivated taste, and fine imagination, and there is little he ever wrote in which these qualities do not appear. The "*Œuvres Complètes de Vauvenargues*" have been re-edited, with an introductory biography, well drawn up by M. Suard one of the perpetual secretaries to the National Institute. They now occupy two volumes 8vo. D'Alembert's "*Œuvres Philosophiques, Historiques et Littéraires*" are also republished in a collected form, and extend to 12 volumes 8vo. The "*Œuvres Posthumes*" of Marmontel, have been already translated into English. They occupy in the original two volumes duodecimo: they are disgustingly minute in the history of his intrigues and debaucheries. At such a history, and especially as addressed to his children, we are astonished: we never regarded Marmontel as a lover of virtue, but certainly as a man of a refined delicacy of feeling. "*Œuvres inédites de M. le President Hénault.*" These unpublished works of M. Hénault consist of his *Marius à Cyrthe*; *Fugitive Poetry*; *Thoughts*, and other pieces in prose; and a collection of notes as materials for an abridgement of the *Chronological History of France*.

Pantheon Chinois, ou Parallele entre le Culte Religieux, &c.—"Pantheon of China: or Resemblance between the Religion of the Greeks and that of the Chinese: with new Proofs that China was known to the Greeks, and that the Series of Classic Writers were the Chinese: by Joseph Hager, Doctor of the University of Pavia, &c." This book is elegantly printed in folio, and dedicated "to his imperial highness Eugene Napo-

Napoleon, Viceroy of Italy, Prince of Venice, &c." The chief argument made use of by Dr. Hager, among these *new* proofs, is by no means new; and is reducible to the following syllogism. The Seres supplied the Romans with silk, which they grew and manufactured: but the Chinese were the growers and inventors of silk: ergo, the Seres and the Chinese were one and the same people. But the previous questions, whether the *Sericæ vestes* were really silk, and whether the Persians, Greeks, or even the Romans, a century anterior to Justinian's time, were acquainted with any such material, still require to be settled; for though these points be here discussed, they are by no means discussed conclusively. The resemblances between the two religions seem rather the effect of accident than of a catenated propagation.

Monumens Celtiques, &c.—“Celtic Monuments, or Inquiries concerning the Worship of Stones, preceded by an Account of the Celts and Druids, and followed by Celtic Etymologies: by M. Cambry.” This volume is of some consequence, as communicating a knowledge that, under the patronage of Bonaparte, a Celtic academy, or an academy for the study of Celtic archæology has been established at Paris, of which M. Cambry is a member. It is also of some consequence to know, that at Carnac, in the department of Morbihan, formerly Brittany, there is a grand stone-hall, similar in many respects to our own Stonehenge. For the rest, the author is for arrogating to the Bretons of France all the honours of antiquity which have hitherto been claimed by our own honest Cambrians. We must transfer him, however, to the

hands of Mr. Davies, who will not readily suffer the inherent dignities of his countrymen to be thus rudely wrenched from their acknowledged possession. Rapport fait à l'Académie Celtique, &c.—“Copy of the Report made to the Celtic Academy on the Russian Work of Professor Pallas, entitled Comparative Vocabularies of the Languages of all the Nations of the Earth: by the Senator Volney.” The work of M. Pallas here referred to is a stupendous monument of the extent of his genius, and his indefatigable industry: it was published at the expense of the Russian government; few copies were printed, and it is extremely scarce. M. Volney has well executed his intention, which was to give a general account of this extraordinary publication, and has pointed out a variety of circumstances by which it may still be improved.

“Des Divinités Génatrices, &c.” This publication is a recondite inquiry into the worship of the Phallus, among both ancients and moderns: but though conducted with much learning and zeal in pursuit of the system the author endeavours to establish, it offers little that has not already been presented to our countrymen by a variety of prior works on the same subject.

La Colombe Messagère, &c.—“The Carrier-Pigeon, swifter than Lightning, fleetier than the Clouds: by Michel Sabbah: translated from the Arabic into French by J. A. Silvestre de Sacy.” M. de Sacy is well known to the literary world on various accounts; and to the learned of our own country especially, as one of the decipherers (M. Akerblad of Stockholm being the other) of the old Egyptian characters on the stone brought from Rosetta,

Rosetta, and deposited in the British Museum. In the work before us, he has translated a very valuable essay on the carrier-pigeon, written in Arabic by M. Sabbah, a Syrian by birth, but who followed Bonaparte from Egypt, and is now a superintendant of the imperial printing press.

The poetical productions of France are chiefly as follow: "La Foret de Fontainebleau, by R. R. Castel; modelled after Pope's Windsor Forest, and written with much spirit: "La Vestale;" a poem in four cantos, by Lamontagne de Langdon; in which the hackneyed mythology of Greece is again adverted to for machinery: "La Napoléide:" an epic poem in six cantos, by M. de G., describing the successes of Bonaparte, but a poem on which he must not depend for immortality: *Poétique Anglaise*—"English Poetics, by M. Hennech;" a respectable collection from the works of several of our most approved poets, preceded by essays on English poetry, and sketches of the lives of the writers who are hereby introduced to the French reader.

Among the dramatic pieces, we must first mention *Les Templiers*, &c.—"The Templars, preceded by an Historical Account of the Templars, by M. Raynouard." The account of the order is well drawn up, but it should have been any where rather than where it is, as it is too often at variance with the drama pretended to be founded upon it. The tragedy itself has been of late performed with high applause at Paris, and is certainly a very able production, combining much of the brilliancy of Corneille with the *pathos* of Racine. "L'Avaro Fasteux," a comedy in verse, in three acts: "Leonce, ou le Fils

Adoptif," a comic opera, in three acts: "Les Consolateurs," a metrical comedy, in one act. It is enough to catalogue these: they are as little worthy of criticism as our renowned Blue Beard and Tom Thumb.

Under the class of novels and romances, Mad. de Genlis has published, in two volumes duodecimo, "Madame de Maintenon," intended as a supplement to the History of the Duchess de la Valière. Historic facts are here too often distorted, and the taste and judgment of Mad. de Genlis are evidently on the decline. Matilda, or *Memoires tirés, &c.*—"Matilda, or Memoirs selected from the History of the Crusades, by Mad. Cottin." A very happy use is here made of a very interesting portion of European history; Matilda, the heroine of the romance, is brought forward as the sister of Richard Lion-heart. We cannot enter into the plot: but the whole, extending to six volumes, is too long. *Histoire d'Ines-de-Leon*—"History of Inez de Leon: by F. L. C. Montjoye." This romance is founded upon one of the most interesting incidents in all Castilian history. But, like the last, it is extended to six volumes, instead of being concluded in three. *Alphonsine, ou la Tendresse Maternelle*—"Alphonsine, or Maternal Tenderness," 3 vols. 12mo. This is also from the pen of Madame de Genlis, and is intended to produce a model of what she denominates *education sensitive*: the effect we doubt, admitting the accuracy of the expression: but, nevertheless, the novel is not without its beauties.

Amidst the polite literature of ITALY for the year, we perceive that the *Templiers* of M. Raynouard, which we have just noticed, has

been naturalized by Sign. Franco Salfi, of Milan: that Tiraboschi's admirable *Storia della Letteratura Italiana* is about to be reprinted at Florence, augmented by a considerable portion of posthumous matter; that Celestino Masucco, of Genoa, has announced a new Italian translation of the Odes of Horace, which will make the *forty-seventh* version of these odes in the Tuscan tongue: and, finally, that Sebastiani has printed at Rome a well revised edition of Lycophron's Monologue, or Tragedy of Cassandra. The text is collated from thirteen ancient manuscripts, which this industrious ecclesiastic has been able to pick up, accompanied with Cantir's Latin translation, improved where it was defective, and a copy of Tzetzes's Commentary, collated also from thirteen distinct manuscripts.

At MADRID, the twenty-first number, completing the seventh volume, has been published, of the *Anales de Historia Natural de Ciencias Naturales*,—"Annals of Natural History, or of the Physical Sciences." It is printed at the royal press, is illustrated by engravings, and contains a great variety of scientific essays, original or translated, by natives or foreigners, on subjects connected with botany, geology, meteorology, natural history, and the sciences in general. We have also received three copies of several curious poetical effusions, by Spanish poets of the day, on the tremendous battle of Trafalgar. None of these are ill written; and all of them endeavour, by a misrepresentation of some kind or other, either to soften their own disgrace, or to give the general result in their favour. Nelson, in two of them, is depicted as being stimulated to the direst revenge by the loss of his

right arm, which was destroyed by a *Toledan* blade:—the storm, *which did not take place till afterwards*, is called to their assistance, and the two fleets are represented as being compelled to separate, and leave the victory undecided; or, as we have it in another place, their own losses are amply compensated by the fall of the English hero. The first is entitled *Relacion en la que se Elogia sencillamente, á los Heroes del Combate del dia*, &c.—"Simple Narrative in Honour of the Heroes of the Battle of Oct. 21, sustained by the Combined Squadron against the English Fleet, commanded by Admiral Nelson." The second, *El Combat Naval*, &c.—"The Naval Engagement of the 21st of October: by Don Jose Mor de Fuentes." The third *Sombra de Nelson*—"The Shade of Nelson." They are all very excellent and spirited performances; infinitely superior to any thing so proud an occasion has hitherto called forth from ourselves. Our limits alone prevent us from copying from each of them.

In our cursory survey of Dutch literature and polite arts for the past year, we noticed the very laudable attempts of M. Siegenbeck to reduce the orthography of his country to a fixed standard, as well as the two excellent treatises he had composed, in answer to prize questions on this subject; the one entitled *Verhandeling over den Infloed*, &c.—"Essay on the Influence of Euphony, and of the Facility of Pronunciation, on the Orthography of the Dutch Language:" the other, *Verhandeling over de Nederduitsche Spelling* &c.—"Essay on Dutch Orthography, tending to render it uniform." We have now to add that, on the recommendation of various literary societies, and especially of the *Tot Nut*

Nut van het Algemeen—"Society for general Improvement," a professorial chair has been expressly created for him at Leyden, for Dutch literature and eloquence; and that he has accepted of so honourable a post. Professor Wyttenbach has just published, at Amsterdam, the third part of the third volume, which brings it to a conclusion, of his very excellent *Bibliotheca Critica*. M. Conrad D'Engelbronnen has published in the same city, an historical and critical disquisition on the name, family, country, and writings of M.T. Tiro, the freed-man of Cicero. It is written in Latin, and displays more purity and simplicity of style than is common to the Latin writers of the present day. Among the Dutch translations we have to mention that M. P. Van Winter has published a good metrical version of Horace, together with various specimens of the *Æneid*: that M. Hiaker has also naturalized into vernacular metre M. Raynouard's *Templiers*, and M. C. F. Cramer the whole of Miss Baillie's Plays, extending to three volumes 8vo.

Among the SWEDES we continue to perceive a growing taste for classical and polite letters. Dr. Lindblom, bishop of Linköping, and formerly professor of eloquence and political science at Upsal, in a quarto work, *De Sacrificiis Veterum Sueo-Gothorum*—"On the Sacrifices of the ancient Swedes," has given an admirable analysis of Scandinavian mythology, which we should like to see translated into our own tongue. Count Scheberin, rector of Sala, has published a useful course of Lectures on Education and general Cultivation of the Mind. A poem entitled *Quinnan*: or "Woman," of considerable po-

pularity and merit, has been written by Wallerius, who has already made himself known to the world by several excellent pieces of fugitive poetry, and a translation of various French plays for the stage at Stockholm. He is now secretary to the Opera, upon the resignation of C. Lindegren, who is one of the best dramatic writers of the Swedish nation. The entire works of Lindegren are now collected and published; the first part having been completed last year. The first poet of the country, however, is Count Gyllenborg; and we are pleased to find that his admirable national epic, the *Taget öfver Belt*—"March over the Belt," alluding to the history of Charles X. has been lately republished, with improvements. It is divided into twelve cantos. M. J. O. Wallin, who is engaged in a kind of general Swedish version of the Latin poets, something after the manner of our own Creech, but with superior excellence, is on the point of adding another volume to his labours.

Among the classical literature of DENMARK we meet with *Det Græske sprogs Grammatik, aldeles fra ny af beasbeided*, &c.—"A Grammar of the Greek Tongue, digested on a new Plan." Of the new plan here offered we cannot altogether approve. It proposes that the scholar should first read his author, and then learn and apply whatever rule the passages selected and read are meant to exemplify. In other respects, however, it is a very useful elementary work, grounded on the theory of universal grammar, and constantly referring to the principles of the Danish and Latin languages. The author is Dr. Block, principal professor of the Greek and Danish languages at the collegiate

legiate school of Odense. A Danish Dictionary, on the plan of that of the *Académie Française*, has been for some time undertaken, at the expense and under the patronage of the Royal Danish Society of Sciences: it is conducted by many of the most distinguished literates of Copenhagen, and is designed to fix the orthography, and form the standard of the Danish tongue. A new periodical work has lately been commenced by M. P. A. Mønster, at Copenhagen, entitled the *Athenæum*, of a description perfectly similar to that of the same name published in London. An epic poem, entitled, like one that has also appeared among ourselves, "The Exodiad," has just issued from the Danish press that is very highly spoken of, but of which we have not yet received a copy. We shall notice it in our next. It is the first regular effort of the country in this branch of poetry.

HUNGARY, notwithstanding the distractions of the late war, has resumed its thirst for literary information. M. Fabríz has published, in his native tongue, translations of the Greek lyric poets Pindar, Anacreon, and Sappho. M. Koraz has translated the first eight books of the *Æneid* into pentacædic, or fifteen-syllable verse, and the remainder may be expected immediately. M. Heggi of Pest has given a Hungarian version of Cicero's Letters; and M. Tanarki of the same city a version of Tasso's Jerusalem; and under the title of *Ungrische Miscellen*, Dr. Lübeck has commenced a "*Miscellany*," devoted to general science. Bredelyky has finished the fourth volume of his "Contributions to the Topography of Hungary," which concludes a work which has given very general

satisfaction. The *Hlasatel Cesky*, or "Bohemian Prophet" of professor Necedly is a national journal of high classical value, and considerably tends to promote and perfect both the Bohemian language and literature. In the two numbers, which are the whole that have yet appeared, we meet with some excellent translations from the Greek, Latin, English, and German. Kovachich, who has devoted so much time, and so laudably, to classical science, is now occupied with a new and highly improved edition of the *Corpus Juris Hungarici*.

IN TURKEY the Scutari press is still busy. It has published editions of most of the Persian poets of reputation; has lately brought forwards the very valuable Annals of Ahmed Vassif Effendi, entitled "The Excellence of the Monuments and the Truths of Historic Memoirs," in two folio volumes; and is about to complete the internal history of the Ottoman Empire, by a republication of Saadedin.

IN modern GREECE we have to observe that M. Hadsí Nicker has founded a school at Cronstadt for the reception of modern Greeks, which has already thirty-four scholars, and is in great repute. Demeter Alexandrides, a physician of Ternawa in Thessaly, has translated into modern Greek Goldsmith's History of Ancient Greece; and two Greek brothers, by name Zozima, are in the act of giving a new edition to their countrymen of the ancient Greek Classics, from Homer to the epoch of the Ptolemies.

In crossing the Atlantic we find that the *American States* are still almost entirely dependent upon the old world for classical and fine literature. We meet with a greater variety

variety than ever of periodical journals, miscellanies, and reviews, which seems to be a favourite mode of diffusing information: editions of most of the Roman Classics have appeared, and chiefly from the Salem press in Massachusetts. The

Philadelphia press has given an edition of Xenophon's *Cyropædia*, and M. Dufief of the same city has published a philological work of some merit, entitled "Nature displayed in her Mode of teaching Language to Man."

FINIS.



